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ABSTRACT

This study, one of a series of publications on education in other countries, describes all major levels and types of education in Colombia against a background of the relevant economic, cultural, and social features of that country. The first two chapters depict features of Colombia essential to understanding the context within which its educational system functions. Chapter 3 discusses educational landmarks and traditions in hopes that by reflecting on unsolved problems in the past current problems in education can be better understood. The National Government has been responsible for educational activities, plans, and programs since the Ministry of Public Instruction was created in 1903. Chapter 4 explains school organization and administration, while chapter 5 emphasizes planning and development of education identifying problems and determining priorities. Enrollment increases are evident in kindergarten, elementary, secondary, vocational, and higher education. Much of this report (chapters 6 through 19) is devoted to reporting the history, purposes, structure and organization, facilities, curriculum, methods, problems, and criticisms of education at each of these levels. Other chapters on Colombian education are included on teachers and teacher education; private education; other educational programs; and international and foreign educational influences. The final chapter focuses on achievements and prospects for the future in Colombian education. A selected bibliography is included.
(Author/SJM)

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Colombian education is expanding rapidly. From 1955 to 1968, enrollment at the elementary level increased by 121.1 percent; at the secondary level, by 334.8 percent; and at the higher education level, by 384.6 percent.
- Although public education is free, about 25 percent of the elementary school-age population do not attend school.
- In 1968, over two-thirds of all secondary students were enrolled in the general secondary *(bachillerato)* program; and almost half of all secondary students were women. Of those enrolled in the vocational program, over half were in the commercial field.
- Nineteen National Institutes of Middle Education—large, comprehensive secondary schools—are planned to be operating in Department (State) capitals by 1972.
- In 1970, 34 universities were authorized to grant degrees, and university enrollment had reached almost 79,000. The typical university prepares a student for one particular profession.
- About 75 percent of the students who finish their university course-work for a degree do not complete their theses and/or their comprehensive examinations. Although such a student—termed an *egresado*—receives no degree or title, his education is of professional value to him in Colombia.
- Private schools in 1968 enrolled 20 percent of all elementary students, 54 percent of all secondary students, and 46 percent of all higher education students.
- The Roman Catholic Church not only administers most private schools, but also seeks through *Acción Cultural Popular* (with some financial assistance from the National Government) to reduce illiteracy and raise economic and social standards among rural peasants, mainly by means of radio broadcasts.
- The National Apprenticeship Service (SENA) provides up to 3 years of vocational and practical training based on surveys of the country's needs. A semiautonomous agency of the Ministry of Labor, SENA is supported by a payroll tax levied on employers.
- The Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX) encourages Colombians to acquire definite skills from the more industrially developed nations of the world through activities such as loans, authorizing favorable student dollar-exchange rates, and sponsoring scholarship programs.

COVER

Taken from the National Seal of Colombia. The *condor* denotes national sovereignty; the *two horns with fruit and gold,* richness of the land; the *Phrygian cap on a spear* (adopted during the French Revolution as a symbol of liberty), independence; and the *ships,* the Nation's coasts on both the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. The motto means "Liberty and Order."

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education for a new Colombia

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Foreword

This study is another in a series of Office of Education publications on education in other countries. It describes all major levels and types of education in Colombia against the background of the relevant economic, cultural, and social features of that country.

The author, Richard R. Renner, has specialized in Latin American education, publishing articles on this subject in various professional journals. He taught at Pennsylvania State University from 1959 to 1965 and since then has been on the faculty of the University of Florida. Dr. Renner has performed education-related research and teaching in several Latin American countries. His work in Colombia was done during 1960, 1968, and 1970.

Particularly helpful to the author in Colombia were educational specialists in the Ministry of National Education's Division of Planning, the Colombian Association of Universities, and the Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad. Many Colombians in various walks of life also assisted by giving information and opinions about education in their country.

The Office of Education and the author are grateful for the assistance of not only the many Colombian specialists and citizens, but also the Division of Sponsored Research at the University of Florida; Dr. Augusto Franco A., Director of the Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad; Dr. Alberto Ruiz of the Department of Educational Affairs in the General Secretariat of the Organization of American States; Dr. Guillermo Velez, Dean of Education at the University of Antioquia; and Dr. Hal Lewis, Chairman of the Department of Foundations of Education at the University of Florida. The views expressed here, however, are those of the author alone.

ROBERT LEESTMA
Associate Commissioner for International Education.

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Colombia: 1968

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1. The National Setting

Education is an integral aspect of most human activities. Since educational institutions are devised by society, they reflect the values, hopes, and aspirations of the cultural and political groups which make them possible. A country's educational system cannot be understood without some familiarity with its society and with the economic and political institutions which sustain it. This is particularly true of a developing nation like Colombia, where economic growth and selective educational innovations have been accompanied by severe social and political upheavals during the last two decades. This first chapter will describe some of the features of Colombia essential to an understanding of the context within which its educational system functions.

Geography

Colombia is the only South American republic with two important seacoasts. One thousand miles stretch along the Caribbean Sea and 812 miles along the Pacific Ocean. Its land area of 439,530 square miles makes it the fourth largest country in South America. Colombia is slightly larger than Louisiana, New Mexico, and Texas combined; and Bogotá, its capital, with an altitude of 8,661 feet, is one of the highest cities in the world. Of the 14 main population clusters, 11 are in mountain basins or valleys three to nine thousand feet above sea level; the remainder, in coastal lowlands bordering the Caribbean.

Colombia's multiple climates permit a wide variety of crops. Efficient commercial production of bananas, cotton, rice, and sugar has developed in the plains areas, and excellent dairy cattle are raised in the vicinity of the three largest cities (Bogotá, Medellín, and Cali) and also in a few other areas. Some haciendas produce beef very efficiently, but in general only those belonging to the very wealthy use modern, efficient methods of agriculture. Predominantly, agricultural practices in Colombia remain uneconomic and therefore provide the many small landowners and landless peasants with but a meagre existence.

Although the Equator crosses southern Colombia, climate is largely a matter of altitude; some school geographies even include a list of useful climate and altitude data for the towns of every Department (State). These altitude regions are typically classified as *tierra fría* (cold country) above 6,500 feet; *tierra templada* (temperate zone) between 6,500 and 3,000 feet; and *tierra caliente* (hot country) below 3,000 feet. High mountains separate

most of the population centers; the highest peak is the volcano of Cumbal at 16,049 feet. Most of the sparsely settled eastern region consists of plains or jungle. Mountainous terrain in many areas has made surface transportation so difficult that an extensive network of low-cost commercial airlines has developed. The first continuously operating commercial airline in South America was founded with German and Colombian capital in 1919. One may now fly from Colombia's capital to its most distant major cities in less than an hour and a half.

Climate and agricultural productivity vary with the elevation. Much of the 3,000-foot-high Cauca Valley near Cali is highly fertile, yielding as many as five crops a year—notably beans, coffee, cotton, pineapples, tobacco, and tropical fruits. In the Cauca Valley the Government has inaugurated a program similar to that of the Tennessee Valley Authority to control floods, drain swamps, irrigate dry areas, and produce electricity. Near Bogotá, barley, cattle, corn, potatoes, and wheat predominate. The *tierra caliente* areas have year-round temperatures ranging from 75 to 80 degrees Fahrenheit, with only a three-degree difference between the hottest and coldest months. From 3,000 to 6,500 feet the temperature ranges between 65 and 70 degrees. Bogotá has an average temperature of 57. Rainfall throughout the country is usually ample, but no regular rainy seasons are common to all areas.

In quality, Colombian coffee ranks among the world's best, and in quantity produced it ranks second only to that of Brazil. The world's largest exporter of emeralds, Colombia also exports gold, platinum, petroleum, and uranium in significant quantities.

Population

Colombia's population of 21 million is third among the populations of South American countries. Nearly 99 percent of Colombians live in the western 45 percent of the country, and the remaining 1.3 percent are scattered throughout the other 55 percent of the country. Although the Spanish sought to protect their pure blood from what they felt was contamination with inferior races, racial mixture was common from the earliest days. Today it has reached the point where precise classification becomes impossible. Recent racial estimates vary considerably. Indians make up from 1 to 15 percent of the population; Negroes, 4 to 10 percent; mulattoes and *Zambos* (mixed Indian and Negro), 17 to 30 percent; *mestizos* (mixed white and Indian), 33 to 58 percent; and whites, 10 to 25 percent.[1] The whites inhabit urban centers primarily, especially the highland cities. Mestizos live in the same regions with whites, but only as peasants or as recent migrants to the cities; and Negroes, mulattoes, and Zambos are found principally along the coasts and in the river lowlands.

Although there are frequent exceptions, a small, predominantly urban group of whites controls the wealth of Colombia and exercises the national power. In recent years, however, these advantages have gradually been extended to the middle classes. Members of the traditional elite take a great deal of pride in their Spanish heritage. Although they may marry foreign whites, they rarely marry Colombians of lower social status. Below

[1] Lyman H. Legters et al. *U.S. Army Handbook for Colombia* (Pamphlet No. 550-26, 2d edition). Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. p. 60.

this elite group lie the vast majority of Colombians, usually of mixed racial ancestry. These people identify with national rather than regional values and traditions, and tend to idealize the values of the upper classes. Urban members of this group are gradually coming to regard themselves as middle class, while the rural peasant tends to see himself as having a lower status. There are also a number of Indian societies, frequently each with its own language, which for the most part remain outside of the Hispanic national culture.[2]

Not only is Colombia's population growing rapidly, but its present rate of growth is one of the highest in the world, increasing from 2.2 percent annually to 3.2 percent between 1951 and 1964. Public health campaigns have lowered mortality rates, but have not significantly lowered birth rates. The nation's increasingly urban population is expected to double in 20 years. In 1951, 38.7 percent of the population lived in cities, but by the 1964 census this number had increased to 52.8 percent. The four principal cities of Bogotá, Medellín, Cali, and Barranquilla are growing at an annual rate of 5.6 percent. Of every 100 inhabitants, 12 were in school in 1960; 6 years later this number had increased to 16. In 1960, 17 pesos per thousand of gross national product were devoted to education; in 1966, 21 pesos per thousand.[3]

The Economy

Although the gross national product increased 5.3 percent in 1966, annual *per capita* income in the same year was equivalent to only $265 at 1963 prices, a figure considerably [illegible] than the average for Latin America as a whole. Between 1951 and 1964, the economically active portion of the Colombian population increased from 3,755,609 to 5,134,125. The following percentage distribution of this economically active population in 1951 is shown by category of worker, arranged from highest to lowest, together with the corresponding percentage in 1964: [4]

Category	*Percent*	
	1951	*1964*
Cattlemen, farmers, and persons in related fields	53.1	47.3
Manufacturing and crafts	15.1	13.1
Personal services	10.6	11.2
Administrators, directors, and managers	5.7	2.6
Unspecified	3.8	3.5
Office employees	2.4	4.6
Professionals, technicians, and persons in related occupations	2.3	3.9
Laborers	2.0	1.2
Transportation workers	2.0	3.0
Vendors	1.7	5.6
Miners, masons, etc.	1.3	0.8
Craftsmen not included above	—	3.2

Most of the country's economic progress has been confined to its modern industrial component. Colombia's financial, business, and government

[2] Ibid. pp. 61–63.
[3] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Antecedentes y Perspectivas del Desarrollo Cuantitativo de la Educación Superior en Colombia, 1968–1975.* Bogotá: División de Planeación, October 1967. p. 19.
[4] Ibid. p. 13.

organizations have put their main support behind high-productivity industries and generally have neglected rural and other enterprises using large amounts of unskilled labor. The high-productivity industrial sector accounts for about 80 percent of total gross national product, while employing only one-third of the total labor force. In 1963, nearly one-third of the labor force was unemployed.[5] Although Colombia has a vigorous class of business entrepreneurs, it does not have sufficient managerial talent in the upper and middle ranks. On this score, however, it is in much better condition than many other South American countries.[6]

Certain Colombian industries have grown rapidly. In 1962, for example, steel production increased by 10 percent and cement production by 9.9 percent.[7] As early as 1963, industry accounted for 18 percent of the country's total gross national product.[8] The more than 400,000 stockholders listed on the Bogotá Stock Exchange were more numerous than in any other Latin American country, even allowing for the fact that the names of certain families frequently recur on boards of directors.[9] Throughout the last decade a spirit of enthusiasm for economic development has characterized the outlook of the country's leadership, and substantial progress has taken place.

Despite its emphasis on manufacturing, however, the Colombian economy is heavily dependent upon exports. In 1966, coffee alone supplied 63 percent of the value of its exports—one-sixth of the world's supply, 66 percent of which went to a single market, the United States. Coffee has been Colombia's principal source of the foreign exchange she needs to purchase capital goods for industrial expansion. This fact ties the country's economy to the vicissitudes of the weather and the world market variables which inevitably result in fluctuating capital for expansion. For example, the average price of coffee fell from 48 cents, U.S., per pound in July 1966 to 40 cents in August 1967.[10]

The second largest export, petroleum, amounts to about 13 percent by value. The third largest export is cattle. In precious metals, Colombia is South America's largest gold producer, mining most of the gold ore in the Department (State) of Antioquia. The only platinum producer in Latin America, Colombia also furnishes 95 percent of the world's emeralds. Annually, it exports more than 1,700,000 tons of bananas, primarily to West Germany and Holland.[11]

For the past 10 years Colombian industry has undergone a dramatic modernization. Although the country still imports many consumer goods, it nevertheless produces the following items for national markets: Building materials, certain chemicals, foodstuffs, footwear, glass, pharmaceuticals, textiles, and tires. Tariff protection has done much to stimulate the development of these industries.

Much of this progress has resulted from Colombian preeminence in economic planning. When World War II disrupted foreign trade with the

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[5] Dieter K. Zschock. *Manpower Perspective in Colombia.* Princeton: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1967. pp. 122–23.
[6] Pat M. Holt. *Colombia Today—And Tomorrow.* New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964. p. 163.
[7] Ibid. p. 159.
[8] Ibid. p. 147.
[9] Ibid. p. 146.
[10] Howell Davis (ed.). *The South American Handbook, 1968.* Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1968. p. 316.
[11] Ibid. p. 316.

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industrialized nations, Colombia was obliged to manufacture substitutes for its most urgent needs, thus initiating Colombian interest in industrial expansion. Concurrent with this growth came a corresponding expansion of higher education. Between 1945 and 1963, 73 new secondary- and university-level specialties were introduced, many of them in technical and managerial fields.[12] This interest in national development was stimulated further by various economic studies carried out by foreign as well as Colombian specialists. Civil strife starting in 1948 interfered with planning until the military, which took over in May 1957, made a number of firm decisions later ratified by national plebiscite.

In 1961 Colombia adopted the first General Plan on Economic and Social Development for the decade 1960–70. Laughlin Currie, head of the 1952 World Bank Mission to Colombia, was responsible for the so-called Currie Plan for development. It rested on the following premises:

1. Although presently accessible land in Colombia is insufficient to support the current rural population at adequate standards of living, this would not be the case if it were efficiently developed through modern technology.
2. The objective of Government agricultural policy should be to encourage fewer farmers to produce with greater efficiency.
3. The people should then be encouraged to leave the land and migrate to the cities, where they can be provided with better and cheaper education along with health and other social services.
4. This influx would be absorbed by large public construction programs which would generate, through wages paid, a greater demand for consumer goods. This would in turn stimulate industry to utilize its present capacity.

These projected changes, Currie says, would result in a self-sustaining process of capital formation and industrial expansion which would provide added employment simultaneous with phasing out construction. Coincidentally, civil disorder and violence in much of rural Colombia has increased the rate of migration to urban areas, thus enhancing the possibility of implementing Currie's concept.

Despite export imbalances and grave social problems, increasing domestic stability since 1957 has led to greater economic prosperity. The political and economic leaders are now largely inspired (as far as economic growth is concerned) to believe that prosperity can be created by means of education and technology and they have taken steps to encourage constructive economic development. In addition, consumer credit, uncommon in Colombia until the 1960's, is now being employed as a means of increasing the comparative affluence of the middle and lower classes.

Rural Conditions

According to the 1964 census, Colombia's population was 52.8 percent urban, reflecting a rapid trend toward urbanization during the past 20 years. Although only 2 percent of the nation's total land area is cultivated and only 7.5 percent of the potentially arable land is in use, about 50 percent of the population earn their living in agriculture.

Land ownership patterns vary considerably from one region of the

[12] Ibid. p. 317.

country to another. Taken as a whole, however, more than 60 percent of the farmers own roughly 4 percent of the land in lots of about three hectares (7.4 acres). Although farms of more than 100 hectares (247 acres) are owned by fewer than 3 percent of the farmers, farms of this size account for more than half the land area. Stock farms of more than 750 acres occupy more than 31 percent of the total arable area. Many of the very small holdings are broken up into noncontiguous plots, and the smallest holdings, known as *minifundia*, are frequently the poorest lands. In the southwestern Colombian Department of Nariño, the Institute of Agrarian Reform (INCORA) found 36,000 *minifundistas* plus approximately 10,000 families without any land. This amounts to about 230,000 individuals with a per capita daily cash income between 4 and 15 cents (U.S. currency).[13]

A typical peasant family lives in a dirt-floored adobe house of two or three rooms. Family members carry water from the nearest stream, perhaps a mile distant. Since they wash their clothes and bathe their bodies in the same stream, the drinking water is likely to be polluted. Although the Government is making considerable progress in health care services, 90 percent of the population in some parts of rural Colombia have intestinal parasites. Infant mortality is extremely high.[14] A six-Department (State) survey by INCORA of 123 heads of rural peasant families revealed that 21 had never attended school; nine had attended 1 year; 28, 2 years; 25, 3 years; and 36, 4 to 5 years. Only four had attended some secondary school.[15]

History

Colombia was originally populated by Indians moving northward from Ecuador. They settled at altitudes between 7,500 and 8,500 feet because above this elevation the climate was too cold and below it malarial mosquitoes were a menace. The first permanent Spanish settlement was established in 1529 by Rodrigo de Bastidas at Santa Marta. European control of the interior began with Gonzalo Jiménez de Quesada. While attempting to discover the source of the Magdalena River in 1536, Jiménez conquered the sedentary Chibcha Indians in that area and 2 years later founded Santa Fé de Bogotá.

Missionary Brotherhoods

From the earliest days of the Spanish Conquest, the Roman Catholic clergy played a vital part in the development of what is now Colombia. With Quesada and others came the missionary brotherhoods comprised mostly of Dominicans, but also, in substantial numbers, of Augustinians, Franciscans, and Jesuits. These orders had craftsmen, physicians, and teachers among their members; and they exerted a powerful moral influence, frequently intervening in the administration of justice—more often than not on behalf of the Indians.

[13] Holt. op. cit. p. 96.
[14] Ibid. pp. 11–12.
[15] María Guarnizo. *Evalución de Progreso Campesino*. Bogotá: Instituto Colombiano de la Reforma Agraria, Oficina de Divulgación, 1967. p. 57.

Early Independence Movements

For nearly two centuries, French, English, and Dutch privateers menaced the colony by attacking Spanish shipping. Sir Frances Drake captured Cartagena in 1585 and forced the Spanish to pay a huge ransom for the return of the city. The first revolution against the Colonial authorities, the Revolt of the *Comuneros* (common people), was suppressed in Socorro in 1781. The movement toward independence received further impetus in 1794 with a translation of the French *Declaration of the Rights of Man* by the Creole Antonio Nariño. For such activities Nariño was exiled to Africa for 10 years; however, he managed to escape and return to Colombia disguised as a priest.

Toward Independence in the 19th Century

In July 1810 a rebel junta deposed the Spanish viceroy and took command of Bogotá in the name of Ferdinand VII, then a prisoner of Napoleon. After Napoleon's defeat in 1815, Spain sent Pablo Morillo in command of 10,000 veterans to reassert Spanish control. His forces captured Cartagena after a siege of 106 days and marched on to Bogotá, killing many of the revolutionary government's most distinguished leaders. In August 1819, after a long march from the plains of Venezuela, troops commanded by Simón Bolívar, Francisco de Paula Santander, and José Antonio Anzoátegui defeated the Spanish Army. The Republic of Gran Colombia was proclaimed in December 1819, consisting of present-day Colombia, Ecuador, and Venezuela.

In 1830 Venezuela and Ecuador left the Republic. The remaining Provinces formed the Republic of New Granada, which, under a new constitution in 1863, became the United States of Colombia. Colombia has officially been designated as a republic since the Constitution of 1886. In 1903 Panama declared its independence as a separate nation, a status recognized by Colombia in 1921.

Emerging Political Parties

From the time that Colombia became independent of Spain, Colombian advocates of a strong central government have differed fundamentally with those favoring a federal system similar to that of the United States. Dedicated statesmen (whose positions, unfortunately, often led to revolt and open warfare) have defended both of these conflicting viewpoints.

Out of these two opposing factions grew the country's historical political parties, the Conservatives and the Liberals. Each party was in power alternately for the first 30 years after 1830. Between 1863 and 1884 the Liberals were in control of the National Government, but the revolution of 1885 led to a Liberal defeat and marked the end of the federal system. The country fell into such a state of financial difficulty and attendant demoralization that its leaders decided to put its welfare above partisanship; they therefore formed a national party. A reform movement headed by President Rafael Nuñez resulted in the Constitution of 1886, which today remains the Republic's basic document.

In 1887 the Government of Colombia signed a concordat with the Holy See in Rome, which established a free and independent Roman

Catholic Church in Colombia—an entity to be completely separate from the State. The concordat also gave the Church the right to set up religious orders and direct religious teaching, which was to be compulsory in all schools.

The Liberals and the Conservatives then resumed their struggles, which culminated in 1902 with the end of the War of a Thousand Days. A comparatively harmonious half-century followed, but in 1948 the Liberals' leader, Jorge Gaitán, was assassinated. Civil violence grew until 1958, when responsible leaders of both the Liberal and the Conservative parties established the National Front.

Government

Structure

Colombia is a unitary republic divided into 22 Departments, 3 *intendencias* and 5 *comisarías*. Departments are comparable to American States, and *intendencias* and *comisarías* represent largely undeveloped territory. In December 1966, a new Department named Risaralda was created from territory formerly belonging to the Department of Caldas. In 1967 two more Departments were created—César and Sucre. Each Department is subdivided into municipal districts headed by a mayor who acts as administrative officer and who represents the Governor of the Department. Each municipality elects its own council. *Intendencias* and *comisarías* are under direct control of the National Government.

Chief Officials

Senators and Representatives are elected by popular vote. The Senate has 118 members and the House of Representatives 210. In the same elections the people vote for deputies to the Department assemblies and the municipal councils. Elected for 4 years, the President cannot succeed himself. He appoints his 13 Ministers and the Governor of each Department. Each Department's assembly supervises administration and finance for that Department.

The National Front

At present, Colombia is governed under a National Front system whereby the two traditional parties, the Liberals and the Conservatives, alternate in the presidency. Begun in 1958, this system was to continue for 12 years; it was later extended 4 more years.

The National Front seeks to provide stability in a country plagued by violence and civil strife which has cost up to 200,000 lives since 1948, when Liberal Party leader Jorge Eliécer Gaitán was assassinated. Under the National Front system, not only is the presidency alternated between the two major political parties, but the two parties also divide all other elective and appointive offices between them. Although only two political parties are permitted, open elections and internal factions have resulted in a government which at times has had difficulty raising a majority for any effective action. In addition, it exists constantly under the threat of an elected majority opposed to the National Front concept.

When President Carlos Lleras Restrepo's term of office ended in 1970,

another National Front candidate for President, Misael Pastrana Borrero, succeeded him for a 4-year term. Pastrana supporters, however, failed to win a majority in either of the two houses of Congress.

Appointed to head the Ministry of National Education in the new Pastrana cabinet was Liberal Party member Luis Carlos Galán.

La Violencia

Never completely absent from Colombia, violence in that country has had two particularly conspicuous periods: (1) Between 1948 and 1953, especially in the following political subdivisions—Antioquia, Arauca, Bolívar, Boyacá, Caldas, Caquetá, Casanare, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Chocó, Huila, Meta, Santander del Sur, Tolima, and Valle; and (2) between 1954 and 1958, especially in the following political subdivisions—Antioquia, Caldas, Cauca, Cundinamarco, Huila, Tolima, and Valle. Where violence still continues, it is mainly in these areas.[16] In the beginning, *la violencia* was a struggle for power between the two political parties. The Liberals tried to oust the Conservative government, and the Conservatives sought to keep their control of a government which had a Liberal majority. As time passed, the violence lost its clearly political objectives and became a movement characterized by banditry, terrorism, and vengeance. This bloodshed directly affected at least 20 percent of the population for a generation. Although nonpolitical banditry still continues in certain rural areas (about 1,800 murders a year), Colombians in general believe that *la violencia* is no longer a significant factor in national political life.

The upper classes reacted to *la violencia* with a new appreciation of the fact that beneath the thin veneer of republicanism lay a revolutionary pressure among the rural masses which could undermine the stability of the traditional system. It became increasingly apparent that government had to acquire a more popular character if there was to be real stability. The National Government is now active in many reform programs. Important universities are beginning to engage in research about rural problems. In addition, the Roman Catholic Church has become increasingly concerned with social reform. The more liberal position taken by the Second Vatican Council on social change has become a rallying point for reform elements in the Church's hierarchy.

The insecurity of rural life in many areas of Colombia has caused a significant migration to the cities; the once rural education problem is therefore fast becoming an urban one. Since in a broad sense education can create loyalties, national leadership groups reacted to the possible political and social menace posed by rural migrants by expanding urban education to these new social groups. They especially concentrated on working class areas, but they included rural areas as well. In this sense, then, the political crisis and its attendant rural violence placed a large segment of the educationally neglected rural population in urban settings where opportunities for schooling were greater. School enrollment increased correspondingly. These changes are contributing in important ways to improved educational conditions in Colombia.

[16] Norman A. Bailey. "La Violencia en Colombia," *Journal of Inter-American Studies*, 9:561, October 1967.

2. Cultural and Social Influences on Education

Inseparably linked to the educational theory and practice of any country are social and cultural circumstances. In Colombia, as in other Latin American countries, these factors are significant in determining who shall be educated, what kind of education the country will provide, and how much and what kind of education will be needed for the various places in life.

The Influence of Class

The Colombian middle class makes up approximately 10 to 15 percent of the total population; it consists of an increasing number of white-collar employees, technicians, and young professionals.[1] As in most of Latin America, the term "middle class" often applies to social rather than to economic status; consequently, many Colombians, including school-teachers, are considered middle-class, even though they earn less than many industrial workers. The principal determinants of class status are lineage, racial derivation, and wealth, but a secondary set of determinants includes educational attainment, refinement of manners, intellectual and literary distinction, pattern of personal associations, and style of dress.

Recent trends toward industrialization and urbanization have tended to create a sharper cleavage between the more affluent urban society and the relatively static social structure of rural communities. With increasing modernization, the ruling class is becoming more willing to relax its exclusive grip on political power; education is benefiting somewhat from this change. At the same time, the lower classes are becoming increasingly aware of the extent to which they have been excluded from opportunity by the policies of the elite.[2]

Upper-Lower Class Relationships

Until very recently, the relationship of the upper to the lower classes has been paternalistic; the upper-class *patrón* has a sense of responsibility toward his employees and his tenants. Now, however, the government is gradually increasing its role in social welfare and providing institutional services for the poor that will eventually replace their direct personal

[1] Pat M. Holt. *Colombia Today—and Tomorrow*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964. p. 14.
[2] Lyman H. Legters, et al. *U.S. Army Handbook for Colombia* (Pamphlet No. 550-26). Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. pp. 95–96.

dependence upon *patrones* and result in a long-range improvement of their condition.[3]

Most Colombians with any significant amount of schooling share the values of the elite for two very cogent reasons: First, emulation of these values has practical economic and social advantages, and, second, they themselves are being pressured by imitation from below. Gustavo Jiménez Cadena, professor of sociology at Javeriana University, described the attitude of the educated elite toward the illiterate masses as one of superiority sometimes tempered by benevolent paternalism, with the people at the base of the social pyramid frequently regarded as inferior beings incapable of improving their socioeconomic circumstances. At best, compassion, especially among the affluent classes, takes the form of charity and almsgiving, but in general, the upper classes are making few efforts to help create conditions conducive to social improvement for the lower classes. Despite poverty and periods of social unrest, however, the vast majority of lower-class peasants apparently accept their second-class role with resignation.[4]

The "cultured gentleman" attitude prevalent among the ruling classes frequently results in a distinctive kind of social behavior. One is expected to listen to the opinions of others without offending them or offering one's own views. As a consequence, open intellectual exchanges are generally considered to be in bad taste. Among the lower classes, this attitude often results in violent personal confrontations. A related characteristic is the tendency to emphasize who a person is rather than what he stands for. Consequently, personal dogmatism is often valued as highly as logical argument.[5]

Cultural Characteristics

A Colombian's first duty is to his family. Allegiance to other social entities, such as village, social class (if one is a member of the elite), political party, and sometimes professional or occupational group, is secondary. Persons of superior status owe protection and concern to their subordinates; the latter reciprocate with support and respect. Loyalty to one's superiors takes precedence over loyalty to one's equals. Individualism is highly valued, most often taking the form of a confident self-assertiveness. The fact that cultural change occurs frequently only as a result of violence can be attributed partly to a scale of values that favors this kind of aggressive behavior. Top-level leadership is exercised by men conscious of their superior ancestry and secure in the knowledge that their positions cannot easily be challenged.

The individualism and personal dignity of Colombians is sometimes misconstrued as callousness or indifference. More appropriately, however, it may be construed as nonawareness of the existence of a world outside one's immediate circle of family and personal friends. It is this feeling which inhibits concern for the welfare of others as well as for the development of public institutions such as schools.

[3] Ibid. p. 306.
[4] Gustavo Jiménez Cadena. *Sacerdote y Cambio Social*. Bogotá: Ediciones Tercer Mundo, 1967. pp. 64–65. A carefully written dissertation done as a member of a research team from the University of Wisconsin's Land Tenure Center.
[5] José Gutiérrez. *De la Pseudo-aristocracia a la Autenticidad*. Bogotá: Ediciones Tercer Mundo, 1966. pp. 49, 54, and 59.

Fatalism is also prevalent in popular thinking. If God wills that a school does not open for lack of funds, the Colombian feels that there is little sense in trying to change this circumstance. If one is born a peasant, he is likely to feel it is foolish to attempt to rise above his class. Points of view such as these are important factors in cultural resistance to change.

Colombians, like most other South Americans, tend to view life in political terms. A central feature of this attitude is the belief that when someone gets ahead in life or business, it is always at another person's expense. Influential Colombians tend to obtain resources for their respective groups more by limiting others' access to them than by showing that they can use them better.[6] This conflicts directly with the opposite view that one person's success contributes to the benefit of all. At the same time, Colombians treasure close personal friendships more highly; not only are good friends a source of deep enjoyment, but they also can be depended upon to give help graciously in time of need. This spirit is almost always reciprocated.

Values and traditions such as these make it difficult for Colombians to cooperate. Not only are the educated encouraged to develop a fondness for their own ideas and an emotional commitment to setting them forth effectively, but they are also correspondingly less receptive to the views of others. Ordinary citizens find it difficult to comprehend that their government is really concerned about their problems. They find it difficult to believe that anyone outside their immediate circle of friends could have a disinterested concern for their welfare. It is therefore relatively difficult to get Colombians to cooperate toward social goals although they have made surprising progress in such efforts during recent years.

Youth Customs

In all social classes young males enjoy the virtual absence of restrictive supervision. The upper- or middle-class boy is allowed to spend much of his time outside his home, either in clubs or with friends. The lower-class youth has fewer social activities only because he must earn a living. Girls, regardless of social class, are much more carefully supervised. They learn the traditional feminine skills and attitudes from their mothers, and, depending upon their social class, may be chaperoned. The poorer classes rarely observe the practice of chaperonage; the upper classes resolutely adhere to it.

Boys from the higher classes may accept employment when they near adulthood, but usually choose only white-collar jobs which do not impair their class status. A lower-class stigma is attached to manual labor of all kinds, and the performance of such tasks invites social ostracism. Girls are even more limited in their vocational opportunities, but the popularity of secretarial education for women attests to the social suitability of this type of white-collar employment for them. Even though the first years of elementary education seek to inculcate social values and habits which will enable any child to function as if he were a member of the traditional upper-middle class, it is evident that lower-class and peasant life varies greatly from the norms accepted by the upper classes.

[6] Joaquín Páez Gómez. *Education and National Development in Colombia.* Stanford: Stanford International Development Education Center, 1969. p. 126.

Alcohol is an indispensable part of rural community life. Drinks are constantly being pressed on guests as a gesture of hospitality and friendship. Not participating gives one a reputation for being standoffish, which has caused many foreigners, especially U.S. Peace Corps volunteers, considerable anguish. (One volunteer, however, handled the problem with ingenuity: He gave up *aguardiente*, a native liquor, for Lent, thus not only avoiding the *aguardiente* but also impressing his rural friends with his strong character.)[7]

Individualism

From early childhood Colombians are taught to look after their own interests. This individualism becomes personal and inward-looking, emphasizing the uniqueness of the individual personality and inner being, a uniqueness which is to be maintained at all costs, for it reinforces a sense of dignity and personal pride. The leader of an organization is usually expected to determine most of its policies, frequently without even consulting his closest supporters. Followers tend to judge their leader by the power he wields and place a premium upon his ability to outmaneuver rival groups. His personal reputation and strength of character also contribute to his effectiveness as a leader.[8]

Although many educated Colombians are thoroughly familiar with the customs of North Americans, a Colombian who is unfamiliar with them is likely to be offended by their apparently impersonal manner. For example, Colombians consider it poor taste to get to the point in a professional or business matter before exchanging pleasantries about the health of the family, the weather, or the latest political gossip. This kind of interchange indicates that each person respects the personality and individuality of the other. It thus enables all to function more or less as equals in the matter to be considered. On the other hand, it is perfectly appropriate to come directly to the point when dealing with a subordinate.

Many Colombians are alert to the possibility that their interests will be hurt by another's acts. Although this suspicion is strong toward outsiders, it is even stronger among associates. Peasants automatically assume that outsiders of higher social standing (for example, census takers, landowners, and salesmen) are seeking to exploit them. To avoid being taken in, and above all to protect their dignity, individuals of all social classes resort to deception and prevarication. In addition, persons of low status often lie because they seek to avoid offending a person of higher standing. They will say what they believe their listener wants to hear, rather than what they think are the facts.[9]

Peasant traditions vary from place to place in Colombia; moreover, schooling as a means of communicating the values of upper-class society is often unavailable to the lower classes. Thus there is some indication that, among peasants, many personality traits common to the upper echelons are neither valued nor sought after. A premium is placed upon avoiding complex decisions, and many employers actually want their workers to remain intellectually immature. Workers of low status who demonstrate

[7] Holt. op. cit. p. 140.
[8] Legters. op. cit. p. 119.
[9] Ibid. p. 118.

more than mere functional knowledge are negatively regarded by their peers. Because of such circumstances, persons in servile positions tend not to have significant aspirations; [10] consequently schooling, with its tendency to value upper-class values, is irrelevant, if not dangerous, to their life situation.

Latin American individualism encourages a sense of emotional commitment to the rightness of one's feelings, or inner being. As a result, a tradition of intellectual subjectivity predisposes many Colombians to admire everything uncritically. This respect for the emotional dimension of knowledge sometimes reduces the amount of care and thoroughness with which facts are gathered in support of a particular point of view. In addition, because a point of view taken tends to be subjectively held, it is more difficult to change. This spirit of uncritical enthusiasm often produces vigorous approval at first for proposals and programs; the support, however, dwindles soon after the initial excitement for the idea has passed.

Respect for Authority

Another important principle of Colombian social thought is respect for authority. Children of all classes are taught esteem for their elders, and this tradition is carried into adulthood. Parents, persons of high social position, and the clergy are generally accorded this regard. The Roman Catholic Church as the repository of final truth also encourages respect for moral and secular authorities by means of religion and philosophy courses required in both private and public schools. Society is essentially viewed as pyramidal and paternalistic. Although no accurate data are available, probably 98 percent of all Colombians profess Roman Catholicism, a much higher proportion than that of most other Latin American countries. It is significant, however, that many Colombians rarely participate in any Church activities. In times of national stress, particularly during the period of *la violencia*, the Church was virtually the only cultural force that held the nation together. Moreover, it is the only tradition that nearly all Colombians have in common, especially since access to free public education has been so limited.[11] This special status of the Church naturally deeply involves it in the Government's educational efforts.

Educational Attitudes

Like most people, Colombians think of education primarily as a means of improving their opportunities to get a job. Next, they regard it as a way to attain the upward social mobility necessary for gaining access to preferred positions or select circles. And to a lesser extent they value education as a means of developing their intellectual faculties.[12]

Some writers have criticized Colombian secondary and university education as being so constituted that a student undertakes it not so much for what it will teach him as for what it will provide him in the way of status. In fact, some writers have described the entire structure and mean-

[10] Sam Schulman. "Intellectual and Technological Underdevelopment: A Case Study—Colombia," *Social Forces*. 46:313–16, March 1968.
[11] Orlando Fals Borda. "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of Education in Colombia," in *The Caribbean: Contemporary Colombia* (A. Curtis Wilgus, ed.). Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962. p. 188.
[12] Alejandro Bernal Escobar et al. *La Educación en Colombia*. Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1965. p. 262.

ing of the educational system as affected by the pressure for status.[13] They point out that Colombians also regard status as vocationally useful. Whatever their reasons, most Colombians do value education highly, and although they tend to think of it as the accumulation of factual knowledge, they are generally eager to improve its quality. A middle-class family sacrifices in order that at least one of its members may achieve a secondary education.

Since middle-class Colombians frequently regard education as a service to be bought by those who can afford it, rather than as a socially approved right, they tend to keep the cost of schooling as low as possible. The common word for school (*escuela*) usually refers to a public elementary school—generally of low quality. Elementary and secondary institutions intended for the education of the higher classes are called *colegios*. When politicians promise schools, they generally mean elementary schools of poor quality for those who cannot afford *colegios*.

The person who cannot read is looked down upon by those who can with a mixture of pity and contempt, for he is obviously lacking in culture. The terms culture (*la cultura*) and education are sometimes used synonymously. They reflect the emphasis that Latin American society generally places upon courteous manners and elaborate speech as the best indicators of one's social education. Even in the first year of school, curriculum content represents an effort to inculcate into the young child the kind of verbal information about the world which an urbane member of the upper class is presumed to possess. All educational levels appear to agree that this ideal of the cultivated individual is a worthy one.

Although the Government assumes the responsibility for providing universal free public education, hundreds of thousands of children remain without schools of any kind. If some authority suggests to rural villagers that they need a school, they will always agree, but they are likely to comment that it is not their responsibility to initiate action. In their experience, responsibility belongs at a higher level—to the *patrón* or the Government. The notion that they could build a school themselves in a few months is inconsistent with their role in life. If they do accept the responsibility for such an innovation, they will usually set up an elaborate ritual for organizing an action plan. Typically, before they finish the job, there will be delays, disputes over the school's location and design, and a great deal of difficulty in reaching a compromise on any number of controversial points.[14]

Efforts to make rural schools more relevant to the life style of peasants sometimes fail for lack of interest and support from the communities they are designed to serve. This happens partly because practical education does not confer status, but primarily because the peasant has learned not to take chances. He will resist new ideas more often than not because the farming methods his family has been using for generations may not produce an abundance, but he knows they produce something. On the other hand, if an innovation should result in total failure, he knows he can expect to starve.

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[13] James L. Payne. *Patterns of Conflict in Colombia*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1968. p. 29.
[14] Holt. op. cit. p. 10.

Educational Expectations

A typical urban middle-class Colombian is likely to possess a *bachillerato* (secondary diploma) and possibly some university experience. His children are likely to attend private secondary schools, and he expects that they will proceed to a National or Departmental university. Although officials and middle-class intellectuals express concern about educational inadequacies, there is a general lack of active interest in public education except at the beginning of the school year when many applicants are turned down for lack of public school facilities. The interest of the Ministry of National Education in decentralizing education partly reflects a belief that the public will become more concerned with educational matters when it has more direct control over local public education.

The majority of peasants do not think much about improving their social status because they perceive few safe opportunities for advancement. Under these circumstances, they appreciate only very practical instruction, which unfortunately is not the kind usually offered in the elementary school. Demands for better education are most likely to come from parents in small cities which lack a secondary school or from parents in poor neighborhoods of cities where society is in transition. These parents value traditional education because it confers a status having a definite market value in the society in which they aspire to move. They have little concern about content or quality of instruction. For them, schooling need not have practical content—it need only serve as a means for moving into a higher social class.

A similar process is at work in rural communities. According to a study of a village called "Aritama" (pseud.),[15] favoritism and even racial prejudice were frequent. Local teachers insisted that children attend school in clean, new clothes. Children unable to do so were publicly ridiculed by teachers and pupils. Mode of dress was the principal criterion used to award medals and other prizes at the end of the school year. Teachers encouraged girls to carry umbrellas and handbags, use cosmetics, and wear stockings and costume jewelry—expensive items which only well-to-do families could afford. Teachers kept in close personal touch with parents of children who belonged to their own social class, but never visited poor families. The parents usually took little interest in their children's attendance or progress. In fact, they seemed to feel that they were doing the teacher and the Government a personal favor by sending their children to school.

The methods employed in Aritama had a far-reaching effect, both in teaching children the high prestige value of good clothes and ceremonial behavior and in teaching them to abhor manual labor and cooperative effort. Since the teachers considered the school as a center of Spanish tradition, they did not favor the attendance of Indian children. Social discrimination against such children or parents' inability to buy new clothes for their children effectively excluded many from school.

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[15] Gerardo and Alicia Reichel Dolmatoff. *The People of Aritama: The Cultural Personality of a Colombian Mestizo Village*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961. pp. 123–25. As an illustration of conditions in some of Colombia's least satisfactory schools, the Aritama study would be used by reform-oriented scholars and intellectuals to stimulate the Government to take a more active role in social reform. Although few would claim that the Reichels' data are inaccurate, many Colombians would contend that the motives of the village teachers deserve a more sympathetic explanation than the authors have seen fit to provide.

Learning in the Aritama school was reduced to a set of ready questions and answers, beyond which little or nothing was to be added. The curriculum was devoted to teaching that well-dressed, God-fearing, hard-working Spaniards are not only equal but superior to others. The children learn that their village is the heart of the world, and that the only forces bent on destroying this paradise are the Indians and the National Government. Physical labor is to be avoided, although white-collar employment is sought as a well-deserved sinecure by anyone who has attended school. Not all rural Colombian communities share these attitudes and traditions, but they are common enough to reveal the impact of a particular sector of Colombian society on the school.

In urban areas the situation is more favorable, for many educated Colombians now have a wider viewpoint. They are receptive to new ideas, and they have a greater interest and confidence in education as a means of bringing about desirable social and economic change. Civil service legislation enacted in 1962, together with the Government's increasing concern, has created a widespread belief that professionally qualified teachers are now favored over those having privileged political or social connections. Modest changes such as these are the beginning of badly needed educational improvement in Colombia.

3. Educational Landmarks and Traditions

Institutions and attitudes persist for centuries. It is only through an understanding of such traditions and the changes which have taken place over the years, that present practices and aspirations become comprehensible. Current problems in education, as in other areas of human activity, reflect many of the unresolved problems of the past.

The Preconquest

The best known of the preconquest Colombian Indians were the Chibchas, who settled principally in the highlands around Bogotá. Culturally and politically, they are often ranked inferior only to the Aztecs, the Mayans, and the Incas. The only definite indication, however, that the Chibchas had a formal educational institution is the fact that the Moja or Cuca was a seminary in which religious rites and traditions were taught. Carefully chosen children were taught to perform sun ceremonies in which they eventually were burned to death. Practical skills, such as crafts and other traditional kinds of specialized knowledge, seem to have been transmitted through the family.

Colonial Education

Spanish colonists who received grants of land from the Crown (*repartimientos*) according to the *Cédula* of 1509 were initially required to teach Christian doctrines and civilized living to the Indians under their charge. Much of this indoctrination was informal; it required Indians to gather every Sunday in the town square at the sound of the bells and learn by rote the dogma of the Roman Catholic Church. Monastic schools were also established by religious orders to teach Spanish and sacred doctrines to the Indian nobility. The Spanish Crown did not establish schools of any kind—a characteristic, incidentally, of education in the English-speaking world as well. Although the State left educational tasks primarily to religious groups, it often contributed funds to them for that purpose. Established by religious orders during the early 16th century, the first schools (*doctrinas*) were designed principally to convert the Indians to Roman Catholicism. By 1556 the curriculum covered not only reading, writing, and arithmetic, but also singing.

Although education in the 16th and 17th centuries was regarded as a responsibility of parents, aided by the Church, the Spanish Government was concerned from the very beginning with making the people of all its

conquered territories, regardless of race and social position, into effective citizens. The *Cédulas* of 1565 ordered that basic literacy schools be established in all towns, with local responsibility for their support. Archbishop Fray Luis Zapata de Cárdenas founded the Colegio Seminario de San Luis in 1582 in order to train Indian clerics, but his efforts were bitterly opposed by the Creoles and the Spanish-born aristocracy. The institution failed 4 years later because of a student strike.[1]

To establish an institution of higher education, civil and Church authorities had to obtain the Pope's approval. In 1580 they received his permission to convert the Dominican Convent of the Rosary into a *studium generale* modeled after the University of Salamanca in Spain. The new institution was granted all the rights and privileges of a Spanish university, but it was restricted to the white ruling groups.

The Jesuits laid the ground work for the first *colegios mayores* with their Colegio Real Mayor y Seminario de San Bartolomé in 1605. They created 18 annual fellowships for students pursuing an ecclesiastical career. Young men of noble lineage who wanted to study arts and theology were also admitted for a fee, provided they knew Latin and were at least 12 years of age. Each Sunday and Monday 55 *Ave Marias* and five *Paternosters* were sung—evidence of the importance of the religious spirit. No smoking was permitted, and each day's study began with a 15-minute prayer.[2] This institution was soon followed by similar ones in Popoyán, Cartagena, and Pamplona.

The Colegio Real Mayor de Nuestra Señora del Rosario, established in 1653, became the colony's most important *colegio mayor*. The Dominicans founded a Chair of Advanced Grammar for Indians and sons of settlers in 1563, but it failed to develop into a university for lack of funds. Javeriana University, founded originally in 1622, functioned under the principles of the traditional Jesuit teaching rule known as the *Ratio Studiorium*, but it closed in 1767 when the Jesuits were expelled. The Jesuits established seven other secondary schools in the provinces between 1605 and 1743, and in addition taught the Indians practical arts and crafts. By the early 18th century, the Dominicans and the Jesuits had each founded important universities. The *facultad* (school or department) of jurisprudence at the Colegio Mayor de Nuestra Señora del Rosario has functioned continuously since 1653.

By the middle of the 18th century, university classrooms gradually began opening to the laity, especially to the Creoles. Even *cátedras* (lectureships) were being granted to lay persons. Viceroy-Archbishop Antonio Caballero y Góngora sought unsuccessfully in 1787 to secularize the Thomistic University when he proposed a plan which would (in his own words) "substitute useful exact sciences for those which are merely speculative." He felt that the director of studies should encourage the sons of artisans, laborers, and the poor to study industrial arts if they were incapable of other careers. Professors should add new knowledge by analytic rather than by syllogistic methods.[3] In spite of all this, however, attempts to establish a public university in the 18th century were doomed to failure

[1] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia*. Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1965 p. 32.
[2] Orlando Fals Borda. "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of *Education in Colombia* (A. Curtis Wilgus, ed.). Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962. pp. 186–87.
[3] Ibid. p. 189.

because of the opposition of the Roman Catholic Church. After Independence, as education gradually passed into the hands of secular authorities, such efforts gradually succeeded.[4]

The emergence of an educated, nonecclesiastical intellectual group in New Granada in the 18th century led to enthusiasm for English and French ideas. Secularity was becoming an accepted social value, and there was a greater emphasis upon discovering local facts, coupled with a similar decline in interest in theological questions. When physician-botanist José Celestino Mutis arrived in Colombia in 1762, he soon reported, "[There is] a scarcity of rationality so intense that any enlightened understanding is considered dangerous." He courageously attempted to change this intellectual conservatism by presenting the Copernican system of astronomy at the Colegio del Rosario in 1774.[5]

Soon after becoming Viceroy of New Granada, Archbishop Caballero y Góngora in 1783 organized a botanical expedition. Originally, this expedition planned merely to study the plants of northern South America, to record astronomical, physical, and geographical observations, and to draw maps of the regions explored. Directed for 20 years by Father Mutis, the expedition expanded its purposes, however, becoming a center of scientific learning. It discovered or identified many different kinds of fruits, gums, marbles, medicines, oils, precious woods, resins, and waxes, and sent samples to the Spanish Court.

By the third decade of the 19th century, secularity had gradually become synonymous with practicality and thus brought about a de-emphasis of theological studies. In 1850, medicine was being taught (it actually had been taught 200 years earlier at the Colegio del Rosario); in 1861, engineering; and in 1887, fine arts.

Despite Bogotá's distance from European cultural centers and the primitive conditions which prevailed in most of the country, some residents of Bogotá managed to live with considerable elegance. By the end of the colonial era in 1810, Bogotá's population of 20,000 had four printing presses (the Jesuits had brought in the first one in 1737), several newspapers, an astronomical observatory, a theatre, and a university. There were also two scientific journals—*El Semanario*, edited by José de Caldas, and another edited by Jorge Tadeo Lozano. The Government often suppressed liberal views regarding educational matters despite the fact that the 1811 Constitution of Tunja unequivocally stated that—

> . . . learning is absolutely necessary for sustaining a government and for [promoting] the general welfare; the people therefore have the right [to expect] that the government will make a substantial effort to provide for the instruction of all classes of citizens.[6]

Independence and the 19th Century

History considers Francisco Paula de Santander the father of Colombian education. Because of his influence, Bolívar placed all education (including seminaries) under Government control. As Vice President of the De-

[4] Lyman H. Legters et al. *U.S. Army Handbook for Colombia* (Pamphlet No. 550-26). Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. p. 149.
[5] Fals Borda. op. cit. p. 189.
[6] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. 1:20. (Mimeograph)

partment of Cundinamarca, Santander issued orders that every village and every convent and monastery should set up a school of its own. He initiated a policy in which schools, especially *colegios*, would be managed primarily by the state rather than by the church. His *Plan of Studies* for Colombia, issued in 1826, required that *colegios* and universities teach French and English so that their students might become familiar with the best modern intellectual trends.[7]

Although children of all social classes and ethnic groups became eligible for schooling, the General Director of Public Instruction did not set up a central, national administration for education until 1826. At Independence in 1819, only a few schools actually existed.

The ideas of Englishmen were popular, particularly those of Andrew Bell, Jeremy Bentham, Joseph Lancaster, and John Stuart Mill. Lancaster, an English promoter of monitorial instructional techniques, visited Caracas, Venezuela, in 1824, and became acquainted with Bolívar. Franciscan Father Sebastian Mora (who may have seen Lancaster's work in Caracas) founded the first Lancastrian monitorial school in Capacho, a town near Cúcuta, in 1821. Santander brought Mora to Bogotá, where he established the first normal school for training monitorial teachers. Decree 26 of 1822 called for the provinces to send able youths to training centers in Bogotá, Caracas, and Quito to learn the Lancastrian system and to return to their communities to train teachers.[8] An 1826 law ordered that education be free and that voting rights be restricted to the literate. During a 1-year period, seven new *colegios*, 16 secondary schools, 52 Lancastrian monitorial schools. 434 literacy schools, and three normal schools were begun. A national university was also becoming a reality. Sunday schools, patterned after the English practice of conducting reading schools for workers' children, were functioning, and the London Bible Society was active in Bogotá.

In 1828 Bolívar suppressed the writing of certain prominent European thinkers (including Bentham) in order to discourage politico-religious disputes. This marked the beginning of a conservative swing. In 1830, when Bolívar died and Santander came to power, Rufino Cuervo and other officials renewed their efforts to foster popular education. By 1837 the nation had three universities, 26 postelementary and traditional secondary schools, two schools for girls, about 200 Lancastrian monitorial schools, and 850 private and public literacy schools.

Santander established the first national university in Bogotá in 1826, but it did little more than combine existing institutions. University education did not receive truly national support until 1827, when Vice President Santander founded the University of the Cauca in Popoyán. In 1867 President Santos Acosta established the university which has since survived under the name of National University of Colombia. Legislation also ordered that six schools (*facultades*) be created: Arts and crafts, engineering, law, medicine, natural sciences, and philosophy and letters. The new National University permitted reasonable freedom of teaching, but it lacked corporate identity, and the *facultades* never coordinated their cur-

[7] David Bushnell. *The Santander Regime in Gran Colombia*. Newark: University of Delaware Press, 1954. pp. 183 and 190–92.
[8] Luis Antonio Bohórquez Casallas. *La Evolución Educativa en Colombia*. Bogotá: Publicaciones Cultural Colombia, 1956. p. 265.

riculums. Despite the increase in number of practical subjects by the 1860's, most university students still preferred the traditional subjects.

In the second half of the 19th century, the Government engaged a German mission, using Pestalozzian methods, to establish normal schools. Efforts to finance education with taxes based on agricultural property failed because the legislators were nearly all landowners. The Government made a beginning in trade and industrial education and in State inspection of schools, although as early as 1821, the Congress of Cúcuta had passed legislation to establish school inspections and make school attendance compulsory, although school was not free.

The person generally acclaimed as the father of public education for the masses is Dámaso Zapata. He actually provided relatively efficient schools for the masses in his Department, thus showing the country what could be done.

Dámaso Zapata first directed education in the Department of Santander and later in the Department of Cundinamarca (Bogotá) after legislation in 1868 and 1870 had established the basis for a uniform system of public education. When he assumed office at Cundinamarca in July 1872, only 3,594 children were attending school. By the end of the term there were 8,414, and a little more than a year later, 16,489.[9] A stern administrator, Zapata imposed a 5-peso fine on any principal who left school during working hours.[10] In his effort to build up the public schools he received considerable advice and help from the German pedagogical mission.

As civil strife increased the pressure on the National and the Departmental treasuries, the large landholders, who were well represented in the various legislatures, did nothing to discourage the repeal of tax laws that supported elementary education. The Church too had sought to discourage the growth of public schools in places where its influence was not pervasive.[11]

Church Educational Activities

During the early colonial period, Roman Catholic religious orders exercised a significant humanizing influence in their efforts to protect the Indians and to establish schools. When Charles III expelled the Jesuits from all of Spanish America in 1767, they left some 5,000 students in 14 Colombian *colegios*.

The conflict between church and state had its origins in the colonial period. The issue then was not so much one of clericalism vs. anticlericalism as of the general rights and powers of temporal and spiritual authorities. Some of these particular questions involved the jurisdiction of Church courts, whether or not ecclesiastical appointments were to be controlled by the Church or by the State, and whether or not secular schools and non-Catholic cemeteries should be allowed. Liberals generally upheld the power of the State on these issues, while Conservatives upheld the power of the Church. To quell political disturbances resulting from this situation, Colombia signed the Concordat of 1887 with the Vatican. This agreement specified that—

[9] Ramón Zapata. *Dámaso Zapata ó la Reforma Educacionista en Colombia.* Bogotá: El Gráfico Editores, 1961. p. 205.
[10] Ibid. p. 183.
[11] Fals Borda. op. cit. p. 198.

> . . . the Roman Catholic Apostolic religion is the religion of Colombia; the public powers recognize it as an essential element of the social order, and they are bound to protect and enforce respect for it and its ministers, leaving to it at the same time the full enjoyment of its rights and prerogatives.

Granted legal status under this document, the Church agreed that its property, except churches, seminaries, and clerical residences, could be taxed.[12] In turn, as shown below, it received vast powers over education:

> In the universities, colleges, schools, and other centers of learning, education and public instruction will be organized and directed in conformity with the dogma and morals of the Catholic religion. Religious instruction will be obligatory in such centers, and the highest practices of the Catholic religion will be observed in them.
>
> Consequently, in said centers of learning, the respective diocesan ordinaries, by themselves, or by special delegates, will exercise the right respecting religion and morals, of inspection and revision of textbooks. The Archbishop of Bogotá will designate the books that should serve as texts for religion and morals in the universities; and to the end of assuring uniformity of instruction in the indicated matters, this prelate, in agreement with the other diocesan ordinaries, will select the texts for the other schools of official instruction. The government will prevent, in the conduct of literary and scientific courses, and in general, in all branches of instruction, the propagation of ideas which run contrary to Catholic dogma and to the respect and veneration due the church.
>
> In the event that instruction in religion and morals, in spite of the orders and preventative measures of the government, does not conform to Catholic doctrine, the respective diocesan ordinary can restrain such professors or masters of faculty from the teaching of such subjects.[13]

As a result of the 1887 Concordat, the work of the Dominicans, the Franciscans, and the Jesuits flourished at the turn of the 20th century; and other orders such as the Christian and Marist Brothers, the Daughters of Mary, the Silesian Fathers, the Sisters of the Presentation, and the Sisters of Vincent de Paul, also entered the field of education. In addition, the Government restored properties to the Church which it confiscated 25 years earlier. Today *colegios* conducted by these orders have a strong influence in educational affairs.[14] The agreement with the Holy See placed responsibility for education largely in the hands of the Church, which concentrated its efforts almost exclusively on secondary and higher education for men. In fact, the Church, as a matter of principle, opposed secondary education for girls.[15]

During the 19th century, official Government policy had been to extend education, although the persistence of oligarchial social traditions and political unrest had prevented the Government from implementing that policy. Law 39 of 1903 became an important landmark, for it divided Colombian public education into elementary, secondary, professional, industrial, and artistic sectors. Earlier, the 1893 Zerda plan had established a 5-year pattern for normal school training. Legislation enacted

[12] Pat M. Holt. *Colombia Today—and Tomorrow*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964. pp. 21, 28, and 174.
[13] Ibid. p. 175.
[14] Rafael Bernal Medina. "Educational Relations between the Church and the Government of Colombia," in *The World Year Book of Education, 1966: The Church and State in Education* (George Bereday and Joseph A. Lauwerys, eds.). New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966. p. 362.
[15] Holt. op. cit. p. 176.

in 1903 and 1904 declared elementary education as free but not compulsory and placed it under the charge of several Departments and their respective assemblies, although the National Government was still to inspect the schools.

Secondary education continued as a responsibility of the National Government and was subject likewise to the national inspectors. Industrial and professional education was to be paid for by the National Government or the Departments. President Rafael Reyes (1904-09), a progressive Conservative, introduced effective normal schools, and another Conservative, Carlos E. Restrepo (1910-14), who had been Rector of the University of Antioquia before assuming the Presidency of the nation, created a more effective Inspector Generalship of Education. They both worked diligently to secure greater Government control over the schools. In 1909 a law was passed giving the schools additional income from taxes levied on liquor and the slaughtering of beef cattle.

Despite these facts, educational progress was not impressive. In 1924, of a national population numbering 6.5 million, 90 percent of the people were estimated illiterate; and only 17,000 boys—no girls—were enrolled in secondary schools.[16]

Inspection as a basis to maintain quality in education and compliance with the law had existed since 1870 on the Departmental level, but it was not until 1931 that the Government decreed a national system of school inspection. Since inspection was to serve as the principal link between the National Government and the educators, its role was more fully defined by legislation passed in 1936. Augustín Nieto Caballero became the first national inspector, and he served as an important stimulus to progress during his 4 years of tenure. He called for replacing rote instruction with modern teaching methods and practical subject matter, and encouraged the Belgian educator, Ovidio Decroly, to make his views more widely known.

Decroly had come to Colombia in 1925 at Nieto Caballero's invitation. Interested principally in preparing children for effective living, he emphasized "centers of interest" and the "whole" or global method of elementary instruction—a method which sought to integrate subject matter with the child's life experiences.[17] This effort declined in the 1940's owing to poorly trained teachers and the unsuitability of many of his ideas to traditional Colombian culture.

In 1924, under the administration of President Pedro Nel Ospina, the Government invited a second German mission to come to Colombia. It selected three experts for this mission not only because they were able educators, but also because they were good Roman Catholics. Their principal purpose was to plan, with the advice of Colombian experts, an educational program which could be enacted into law. The plan they proposed encountered serious opposition when it sought to reduce the number of Colombian universities, which at that time were five times more numerous than Germany's. They also encountered Church opposition to their secondary education reforms.[18]

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[16] Ibid.
[17] Bohórquez. op. cit. pp. 438-39.
[18] Empímaco Cabarico. *Política Pedagógica de la Nación Colombiana.* Bogotá: Escuela Tipográfica Salesiana, 1952. pp. 100-04.

One minor result of their efforts was the passage of legislation which made elementary education compulsory. Law 56 of 1927 made parents responsible for sending their children to school—only, however, if a free school was located within 2½ kilometers of the home. Decree 1790 of 1930 required hacienda owners to provide school facilities if they had more than 20 children of school age on their property.

Olaya Herrera's Liberal administration (1930–34) invited another German educational mission in 1934 to help reorganize the nation's schools. Fewer than 18,000 boys were enrolled in secondary schools at that time.[19] The resulting reforms led later to secondary education for girls. Law 32 of 1936 ordered that no educational establishment, public or private, should deny education to students for reasons of birth or social or religious affiliation. A 1945 law states that businesses with a capital of more than one million pesos shall be required to support elementary schools for the children of workers if the children number more than 20 and if the place of work is more than 2 kilometers from a school.

Institutions such as the Church and the army once had the right to try their own misbehaving members and apply their own laws, to the exclusion of other legislation. In the formal sense, this practice has long since disappeared, but the rationale that justified it survives in the commonly held attitude that no one general law applies to all individuals. Instead, the individual is relegated to the group to which he belongs. As a result, a political leader, especially on the Department or local level, seeks to demonstrate his influence by shielding his supporters from the rigorous application of the law and by making his opponents feel the full weight of the legal system.[20] This helps to explain why enforcement of legislation setting forth minimum educational standards or requiring private employers to establish elementary schools is inconsistent. In the Colombian view the special situation calls for special exemptions.

Church Influence

The role of the Roman Catholic Church was somewhat altered in 1936 when Liberal President Alfonso López disestablished it and took away its control over education. This was further formalized by another Liberal, Eduardo Santos, who in 1942 negotiated a new Vatican agreement which modified the Concordat of 1887. The principal changes were designed to end clerical control of education (at least in a formal sense) and to stipulate that bishops must be Government-approved Colombian citizens. Despite these changes, however, in 1957 the Government revised the Constitution's preamble to read as follows:

> In the name of God, supreme source of all authority, and with the purpose of securing national unity, one of the bases of which is the recognition by the political parties that the Apostolic Roman Catholic religion is that of the nation, and that as such the public powers will protect it and will see that it is respected as an essential element of social order. . . .

Although thus declaring the Catholic religion as that of the nation, the Constitution also declared the following:

[19] W. O. Galbraith. *Colombia: A General Survey*. London: Oxford University Press, 1966. p. 57. (2d edition).
[20] Legters. op. cit. pp. 120–21.

No one will be molested by reason of his religious opinions, nor compelled to confess his beliefs, nor to observe practices contrary to his conscience.

Liberty is guaranteed to all religious sects that are not contrary to Christian morality or to the laws. Acts contrary to Christian morality or subversive of public order which are carried out on the pretext of a religious exercise are subject to the common law. . . .

The priestly ministry is incompatible with the discharge of public office. Nevertheless, Catholic priests may be employed in public instruction or charity.[21]

Modern Trends

Developments: 1930–50

Foreshadowing Colombia's later educational growth, developments during 1930–50 included certain notable ones. During those 20 years the Government took the following steps in education:[22]

General
Created complementary schools with a predominantly practical orientation.
Established National supervision of education.
Intervened to unify educational plans and programs.
Required private businesses to provide educational opportunities.

Elementary
Founded many elementary schools.
Introduced compulsory elementary education (at least in theory).
Reduced elementary education from 6 years to a more realistic 4 years.

Secondary
Expanded agricultural and industrial technical education.
Expanded private secondary education.
Founded many secondary schools.

Normal
Developed normal schools designed specifically to prepare teachers who could deal with rural problems.

Higher
Took the first steps (in 1935) toward granting autonomy to National University.

Developments Since 1950

Since 1950 the Government has taken a number of notable steps in education, among them the following:

General
Formulated a series of 5-year plans that helped direct national efforts more rationally.

Elementary
Began (in 1960) to help Departments and municipal districts meet the cost of elementary education more effectively.

Secondary
Divided secondary education into two cycles—basic and advanced—in order to

[21] Holt. op. cit. p. 176.
[22] Ministerio de Educatión Nacional. op. cit. I:22.

discourage student dropout and to encourage effective specialization in practical fields such as agriculture, business, industry, and teaching.

Rapidly expanded night schools which primarily serve working people.

Technical and Apprentice
Created the Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX) to develop professional leadership and the National Apprenticeship Service (SENA) to develop skilled workers. (See chapters 13 and 8 respectively.)

Urban vs. Rural Elementary Education

In 1903, Colombian legislation made a distinction between urban and rural education, but in 1932 rescinded the distinction. In 1950 it reinstituted the distinction and in 1963 finally removed it. The Government's efforts to eliminate the differences between urban and rural education were directed towards providing rural citizens with educational opportunities roughly comparable to those available to urban citizens.

Since the 1940's, the number of well-educated persons outside the upper classes has reached a significant proportion. In many respects, however, the elementary and secondary curriculums are still suited primarily to the needs of students who plan to undertake university studies. Colombian authorities increasingly accept education in general and technical training in particular as instruments of economic growth.

Attitude of the Roman Catholic Hierarchy

The introduction of scientific and practical subjects into the curriculum of Colombian schools has encountered relatively little opposition by the Roman Catholic hierarchy following its adoption of a more flexible attitude toward the teaching of many subjects, especially the natural and social sciences. Convinced that the Church must do more than formerly to meet the nation's social responsibilities, a great many Roman Catholic clergy are inclined to accept the philosophy embodied in the encyclicals of Pope John XXIII and the reports of the Second Vatican Council.

Roman Catholic intellectuals frequently encounter striking difficulties in communicating the Church's new social humanism to parish priests. Not only are priests too few in number to administer to the country's religious needs (especially in the small towns), but many of them in these small places have but narrow preparation for any responsibilities outside those relating to church ritual. Then, too, since local priests often depend upon local landlords (the wealthy parishioners) for their small priestly incomes, they naturally tend to reflect the conservatism of those landlords.[23] Despite these difficulties, however, the Church's *Acción Cultural Popular* (see chapter 11) has made a substantial contribution towards social betterment since its founding more than 20 years ago.

Attitude of the Elite Class

Many of Colombia's intellectual and political figures have been prominent either as Ministers of Education or as educators. Among them the following should be named: Germán Arciniegas, Gabriel Betancur Mejía, Jorge Elliécer Gaitán, Guillermo Nannetti, Abel Naranjo Villegas, Au-

[23] Holt. op. cit. pp. 178–79.

gustín Nieto Caballero, and Edwardo Zuleta Angel. In general, they have reflected the enlightened view of the elite class and have helped to sustain national concern for the needs of public education.

Some Specific Improvements

Colombia has made considerable progress in education. Specifically, over the past 10 years it has substantially increased the percentage of its budget allocated to education. Between 1955 and 1965 it increased school enrollments as follows:

Level	*Percent increase*
Elementary	184
Secondary	300
Higher	331

In addition, Colombia's illiteracy rate for persons over 7 years of age declined from 48 percent in 1938 to 31 percent in 1964.

Compared with Colombia's educational history earlier in the 20th century and before that, these figures represent giant forward strides.

4. School Organization and Administration

Organization

The National Government has been responsible for educational activities, plans, and programs since the Ministry of Public Instruction was created in 1903. Article 41 of Colombia's Constitution has the following to say regarding the State's responsibilities for education: [1]

> Freedom of teaching is guaranteed. The state shall have, nevertheless, supreme inspection and vigilance of teaching institutions, both public and private, in order to secure a fulfillment of the social ends of general culture and the best intellectual, moral, and physical development of those who are educated.
>
> Elementary education shall be free in state institutions, and compulsory to the extent that the law requires.

Because the National Government has primary responsibility in education, it exercises control over Government schools, over private education, and over education given by the Roman Catholic Church (except the training of priests and other religious personnel). This authority extends from the President to the Minister of Education, and from him by delegation to the Departments, the municipal districts, and the decentralized institutes such as the Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education (ICFES) and the Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX).[2]

Approval of national plans, National Government takeover of schools, and budget allocations for education all depend upon decisions of the National Congress.[3]

Educational control rests with the Ministry of National Education, whose functions are to—

1. Devise plans and programs of study.
2. Establish operating conditions for schools.
3. Supervise and inspect schools directly.
4. Pay a large part of the salaries of elementary teachers in Departments and municipal districts.
5. Pay the operating expenses of nationally administered elementary and secondary schools and universities.
6. Construct the majority of public school buildings.

[1] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. I:24–25. (Mimeograph)
[2] For information on ICFES and ICETEX, see chapters 9 and 13 respectively.
[3] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. I:27.

7. Contribute to the cost of constructing educational establishments through community action.
8. Finance education in the National territories (*intendencias* and *comisarías*).
9. Assist private institutions.

Bogotá and each of the 22 Departments has a Secretary of Education charged with carrying out all administrative details of education in his jurisdiction in accordance with standards established by the Ministry of National Education. The Governor of each Department names that Department's secretary of education, however. The Department's legislators are responsible for establishing new schools under its jurisdiction and for providing sufficient funds to enable them to function properly.[4]

Decree 3157 of December 26, 1968, reorganized the educational sector. Chart I, prepared in February 1969, shows the organization of the Ministry of National Education and its relationship to other educational entities.

The Ministry of National Education

Heading the Ministry of National Education are a Minister of Education, a Vice Minister, and a Secretary General. Essentially political appointees, the first two are aided by a career official responsible for the technical aspects of educational policy and by an office responsible for insuring that the technical and administrative standards adopted by the Ministry are maintained.

The Ministry's principal administrative responsibilities are to—[5]

1. Administer educational institutions belonging to the National Government.
2. Carry out the national policy for adopting professional standards in education.
3. Coordinate programs with the entities responsible for their development.
4. Finance educational projects for which the National Government is responsible.
5. Name the administrative and teaching personnel in national education institutions and programs.
6. Oversee educational programs and evaluate their effectiveness.
7. Plan educational development at all levels of education and government.
8. Prepare and administer the national education budget.

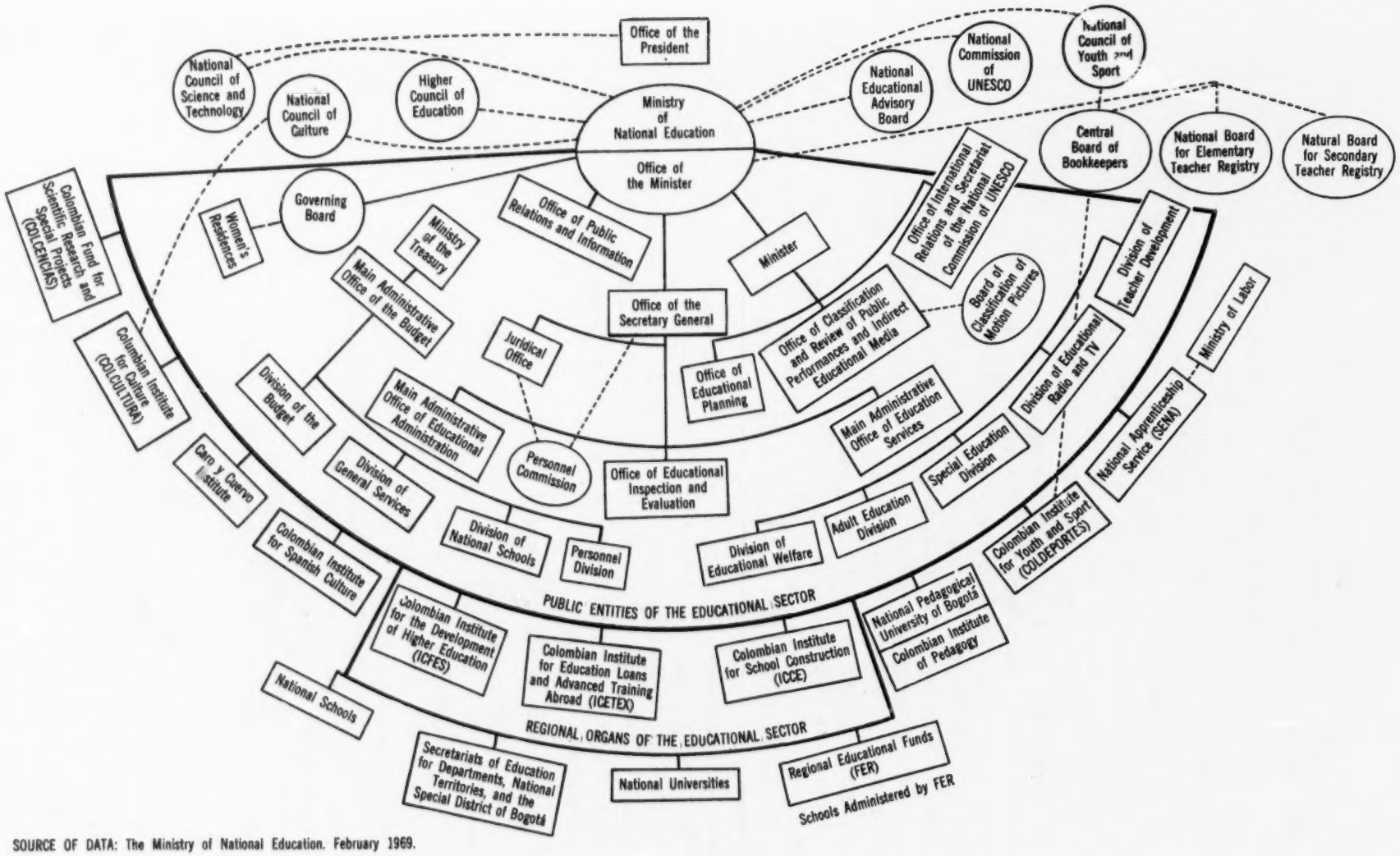
Other Ministry of National Education responsibilities are to—

1. Control the preparation and administration of the year-end examinations.
2. Provide an inspection system to insure that the Ministry's regulations are observed.
3. Set conditions for adopting textbooks.
4. Set up the curriculums of both public and private schools.
5. Specify the academic grading system for all schools.

Recent Reforms

In recent years Colombian educational administration has undergone a great many changes. In 1956 the Ministry of National Education added an Office of Planning (which in 1960 became the Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation) to coordinate the various levels of the educational system and to organize the testing of new curriculums. Decree 1637 of 1960 reorganized the Ministry, making it responsible for all business relating to the development, regulation, and inspection of education and

[4] Ibid. I:28–29.
[5] Ibid. pp. 74–75.


Office of the President
National Council of Science and Technology
National Council of Culture
Higher Council of Education
Ministry of National Education
Office of the Minister
National Educational Advisory Board
National Commission of UNESCO
National Council of Youth and Sport
Central Board of Bookkeepers
National Board for Elementary Teacher Registry
Natural Board for Secondary Teacher Registry
Colombian Fund for Scientific Research and Special Projects (COLCIENCIAS)
Women's Residences
Governing Board
Ministry of the Treasury
Office of Public Relations and Information
Minister
Office of International Relations and Secretariat of the National Commission of UNESCO
Division of Teacher Development
Main Administrative Office of the Budget
Office of the Secretary General
Board of Classification of Motion Pictures
Ministry of Labor
Columbian Institute for Culture (COLCULTURA)
Juridical Office
Office of Classification and Review of Public Performances and Indirect Educational Media
Division of Educational Radio and TV
Division of the Budget
Main Administrative Office of Educational Administration
Office of Educational Planning
Main Administrative Office of Education Services
National Apprenticeship Service (SENA)
Caro y Cuervo Institute
Personnel Commission
Office of Educational Inspection and Evaluation
Special Education Division
Division of General Services
Division of National Schools
Personnel Division
Division of Educational Welfare
Adult Education Division
Colombian Institute for Youth and Sport (COLDEPORTES)
Colombian Institute for Spanish Culture
PUBLIC ENTITIES OF THE EDUCATIONAL SECTOR
Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education (ICFES)
Colombian Institute for Education Loans and Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX)
Colombian Institute for School Construction (ICCE)
National Pedagogical University of Bogotá
Colombian Institute of Pedagogy
National Schools
REGIONAL ORGANS OF THE EDUCATIONAL SECTOR
Secretariats of Education for Departments, National Territories, and the Special District of Bogotá
National Universities
Regional Educational Funds (FER)
Schools Administered by FER

31 SOURCE OF DATA: The Ministry of National Education. February 1969.

Chart 1. The Colombian Educational Sector: February 1969

for the promotion and diffusion of culture and science, consistent with the Constitution, the laws, and published documents on the subject. Most key positions in the Ministry of National Education had customarily been filled by political appointment, but in 1960 the Lleras Government decided to appoint all personnel except the Minister and the Secretary General in accordance with Civil Service regulations.[6]

Law III of 1960 made the National Government responsible as of December 31, 1964, for paying the salaries of all public elementary school teachers in the country. The Government has been gradually assuming this responsibility ever since the law was first enacted.

Decree 3157 of 1968 gave a new direction to the activities of the Ministry of National Education with the creation of Regional Educational Funds to coordinate the administrative decentralization of education. As a consequence, the Ministry delegated to the Departments (States) and metropolitan areas the administration of schools which were previously National schools, leaving only the National Institutes of Middle Education (INEM) and the higher normal schools under the Ministry's direct supervision. As a result of Government decrees passed in 1969, six Department secretariats of education have been restructured and others will be.

Sometimes defined as "the principle of centralization of educational policy and the decentralization of administration," this change gave control over allocating National educational monies to the lower levels of government. In gaining this control, however, the lower governmental levels are required to use their own tax resources more fully and more efficiently than previously in order to be assured of the National Government's approval and financial contributions. To supervise compliance with national educational policy the Ministry of National Education has established within its organization the Office of Educational Inspection and Evaluation.

Departmental (State) Education

Each of Colombia's major political units (Departments, *intendencias*, and *comisarías*) has a secretariat of education whose secretary is named by the Governor, *intendente*, or *comisario*. The secretary has the chief educational responsibilities within his territory. Although the secretary is required to comply with the mandates of the Ministry of National Education, actual ties between the Departments and the National Government are relatively weak.[7]

Departmental secretariats have the following responsibilities: Naming teachers in Department schools, making up the difference between available National Government funds and current obligations, paying supervisory expenses, maintaining public school plants, and providing some of the materials needed for teaching.[8] The Department secretariat of education is responsible for maintaining the elementary, secondary, and higher education facilities belonging to the Department. It also contributes to the construction costs of some school facilities.

Cities with a population over 100,000 have secretariats of education

[6] Lyman H. Legters et al. *U.S. Army Handbook for Colombia* (Pamphlet No. 550–26). Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. p. 153.
[7] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. p. 76.
[8] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *El Desarrollo Educativo* (Vol. 11). Bogotá: Memoria al Congreso Nacional de 1963, Imprenta Nacional, 1964. p. 42.

with a similar organization. The city of Cali, for example, is divided into eight school zones; the Department of Valle del Cauca into three. Except in the large cities, municipal government has comparatively little responsibility for administering education. Colombia has 891 municipal districts (*municipios*), of which 96 percent have fewer than 50,000 inhabitants, representing about 61 percent of the nation's population. There are 33 municipal districts each with between 50,000 and 500,000 people, making up 18.5 percent of the population; four cities with over 500,000 population make up the remainder. The educational responsibility of most of these municipal districts consists primarily of providing sites for new schools and then furnishing and maintaining them. In 1965 the municipal districts contributed only 3.7 percent of all public educational expenses.[9]

Departmental expenditures in general increased 17.6 percent between 1960 and 1965 (at constant prices based on the 1965 value of the peso), but Department expenditures for education increased only 9.4 percent. Department support for education varies considerably from Department to Department. For example, Atlántico spent 43 percent of its total budget on education in 1965, while Cauco spent only 17.3 percent.[10]

General Regulatory Controls

The Colombian Constitution guarantees freedom for private ownership and operation of schools. Such schools, however, must be licensed. To get a license a kindergarten must present a request to the Secretary of Education, together with proof of the director's professional qualifications (including his years of experience in preschool education and his attendance at suitable short courses directed or approved by the Ministry of National Education). In addition, the school premises must be approved for cleanliness, adequacy of furnishings, and general comfort.

A private elementary school must go even further: its director and each of its teachers must be qualified, it must have enough teachers for the enrollment, must pay them the minimum legal salaries, must follow the official Government program, and must meet Government standards for facilities and hygiene.

A private secondary school must observe official plans, courses, and programs and must keep up-to-date records designated by Government regulations.[11]

Because they serve as a relatively attractive route to white-collar jobs, commercial schools are frequently excellent profit-making ventures. Since such schools have natural tendency to cut costs and standards to the bone, Government regulation of them is particularly explicit. Commercial schools must also possess adequate technical and instructional equipment, and they must fulfill (in the judgment of the Ministry of National Education's Office of Inspection) a specified pedagogical organization, pupil classification, spirit of work, discipline, and moral instruction. No class may exceed 35 students, and misleading advertising to obtain students is expressly prohibited.[12]

[9] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. I:29–30.
[10] Ibid. VIII:168–70.
[11] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia*. Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1965. pp. 90–92.
[12] Decree 2117 of August 1, 1962.

Supervision and Inspection

Supervision is an important function on both the National and the Departmental level. The supervisor evaluates and guides educational institutions in desirable directions and attempts to encourage teachers to make self-evaluations. At present, however, practically no supervision exists, and despite the fact that a few supervisory training programs are operating, scarcely any opportunities arise for a teacher to become a supervisor.

The following career pattern has been a common one: a teacher, after long years of experience, becomes principal (*rector*) of his school; he then moves up to become a National inspector. Although there is general agreement that inspectors might also serve effectively as supervisors, several factors prevent this dual responsibility from working out in practice. First, since the majority of National inspectors have passed their most dynamic and productive periods of service, they tend to rely upon bureaucratic experience in dealing with teachers and to become temperamentally unsuited to encourage creative teaching. Furthermore, so many new schools are being established (and thus requiring inspection) that little time remains for inspector-supervisors to conduct more than a kind of police action to see that the schools are not violating the Ministry's minimum standards. The National Government has given the Departments the responsibility for granting licenses to elementary and secondary schools, but generally the Departments have failed to establish adequate minimum standards, and their secretariats of education (with few exceptions) have been much too responsive to local politics.[13]

The program for inspection and supervision needs further improvement, especially since the majority of supervisors at the Department level have been political appointees. Until recently, inspection and supervision on the Ministry of National Education level has been separated admininistratively from the divisions which administer elementary and secondary school programs, thus making liaison relatively ineffective.

The nation is divided into six inspection zones, each with work groups for (1) approval of studies, (2) supervision, and (3) auxiliary services. Each zone has about five elementary and 10 secondary inspectors, plus one administrator, making a total of about 100 at the National level. Departmental and municipal inspectors are usually more plentiful, especially on the elementary level. To qualify as a National inspector of elementary education, as a Department inspector of education, or as a director of training schools, pedagogical institutes, or normals, one must be registered in the first category of the national elementary certification schedule (*escalafón*).[14] After administrative decentralization became effective in 1969, National inspectors began serving as training teams in the Departments.

The inspector's role is primarily one of seeing that particular minimum standards are being met, since he has little time to serve in a supervisory capacity. On the secondary level in the 1960's there was only one National inspector for every 37 schools (417 teachers). In 1963, 60 inspectors pro-

[13] Daniel Arango. *Informe del Ministro de Educación al Congreso Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1966. pp. 55–57.

[14] Ventura Bermúdez Hernández. *Código del Maestro.* Bogotá: Editorial y Tipografía Hispana, 1967. p. 48. For more information on the *escalafón,* see chapter 10 under the section The Classification System.

duced only 950 written reports, suggesting an average of only 16 visits annually. Many inspectors have had other responsibilities as well, including the preparation and administration of final examinations.[15]

Inspectors spend approximately 90 percent of their time on visits to schools which seek Ministry approval. During 18 months, 236 elementary, 542 secondary, and 36 normal schools received communications from the Ministry denying them official approval; during the same period 110 elementary, 129 secondary, and 9 normal schools were granted complete or provisional approval.[16] Standards of approval for private secondary schools are more lenient because the law requires that only half the teachers in those schools must be certified.[17]

A common reason for Ministry disapproval of private schools is their false advertising. They routinely break many of the Ministry's mandates which aim to protect the consumer of private education. Parents are usually reluctant to report private school violations because they believe their children may then receive low grades. On the whole, one must conclude that school inspection services are far from adequate.[18]

Finances

Overall

Before the 1957 plebiscite set aside 10 percent of the general budget for public education, percentages allotted to education ranged from 4 to 6 percent.[19] The 1968 budget for the Ministry of National Education totaled 1,326,700,000 pesos, or 12.0 percent of the total.[20] A summary of previous trends in expenditures in the Ministry of National Education is given in table 1.

Of Colombia's total educational expenditures, the following percents are borne by the three levels of government: National Government—*57.4;* Departments—*38.9;* municipal districts—*3.7.*[21] In 1965, the number of pesos expended per pupil were the following: National contributions to Departments—*52 to 33;* Department contributions—*56 to 44;* municipal contributions—*11 to 4.*[22]

Elementary

About 85 percent of the cost of elementary education goes to salaries.[23] The legislation of 1903 set the following standards: the National Government would build the schools, the Department would pay the salaries, and the municipality would contribute the sites. This method of cost-sharing is no longer the case, for the National Government now pays much more than its original share. It has assumed responsibility for paying teachers' salaries, salaries for administration, maintenance, and supervision, and approximately 75 percent of construction costs for new schools.

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[15] Glenn R. Varner. *Educación Secundaria en Colombia.* Bogotá: ca. 1965. pp. 27–38. (Mimeograph).
[16] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Memoria del Ministro de Educación Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1967. IV:92.
[17] Varner. op. cit. p. 16.
[18] Germán Castro C. "¿Quién Denuncia Irregularidades?" and "Se Violan las Reglamentaciones." *El Tiempo,* March 22 and 23, 1970.
[19] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 92–93.
[20] Octavio Arizmendi Posada. *La Transformación Educativa Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1969. I:63.
[21] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. I:1–2.
[22] Ibid. VIII:208.
[23] Arango. op. cit. p. 17.

Table 1.—*Educational expenditures, by type or level of education: 1961, 1963, and 1965*[1]

[In millions of pesos, with inflation corrected to the 1958 value of the peso]

Type or level	1961	1963	1965
Summary			
Total national	2,449.3	2,058.1	2,482.0
Total educational	242.5	275.9	334.3
Operating			
Total	*191.7*	*239.5*	*301.6*
General administration	5.4	5.3	5.0
Elementary and literacy education	38.2	100.9	119.4
Secondary education	20.2	22.7	24.8
Normal education	13.4	10.6	10.7
Higher education	3.1	2.7	4.3
Cultural extension	2.6	0.7	0.7
Scholarships and meals	3.8	6.6	13.8
Transfers to departments and institutions	104.4	89.6	122.1
Other	0.8	0.4	0.8
Investment			
Total	*50.8*	*36.4*	*32.6*
Elementary	24.3	27.8	18.7
Secondary	21.8	6.4	9.9
Higher	0.6	1.7	1.2
Other	4.2	0.6	2.8

[1] With each item rounded to the nearest one-tenth percent, the actual totals given may differ from the apparent totals.

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, 1967. VIII: 158.

Secondary

About 55 percent of secondary education's support in 1965 came from Department budgets, although public secondary schools may be supported by any of the three levels of government. Salaries and conditions of employment consequently vary considerably. Schools administered by the Ministry of National Education do not need special approval to function, but municipal and private schools need not only Department approval in order to operate, but also National approval in order to receive recognition of their degrees and certificates.

Sources of School Support

Tax Revenues.—The income of the Ministry of National Education is derived from a variety of general Government tax-revenue sources. One of these is a tax on imports and exports (which alone led to a 52-percent rise in ordinary revenues in 1966). Another is an income tax surcharge, reestablished in September 1965. The rates were 15 percent for 1965 and 10 percent for 1966. To strengthen the income tax structure, a withholding system was initiated in December 1966, and new taxes on gasoline consumption and livestock investments were also imposed. By the end of September 1967, ordinary tax revenues were 16 percent higher than in the first 9 months of 1966.[24]

[24] Inter-American Development Bank. *Socio-Economic Progress in Latin America* (7th annual report) Washington: The Bank, Social Progress Report Fund, 1967. p. 107.

Legislators have sought to increase liquor and tobacco taxes and to earmark them specifically for schools. They have also tried to get a 2-mill increase in the land tax in order to strengthen Department and municipal contributions to education. Large landowners, however, have usually supported national prohibitions which prevent local administrative districts (*municipios*) from levying any significant tax on land and other real estate. Thus it is difficult to muster local resources in support of schools and other public projects.[25]

In 1960, the Departments derived 30 percent of all revenue from their commercial monopolies, the majority of which were distilleries. In the absence of cash, some Departments, such as Chocó, have paid teachers with bottles of *aquardiente*, which they in turn sold to the parents of their students.[26] In many Departments, money received from taxes goes into a general fund, and although certain of the tax revenue sources are designated for education, monthly expenditures may be dissipated by the local government for what seem to be more pressing needs, with the result that teachers' pay is frequently in arrears. There is usually no special fund for educational purposes. Other sources of tax revenue which have been proposed as a source of funds for education include a tax on foreign extractive industries which exploit the subsoil and a tax on land not being used for any economically productive purpose.

Other Sources.—Many Government agencies and semiautonomous public corporations also make contributions of educational importance. Every effort is made to coordinate their activities with those of the Ministry of National Education, although in a number of instances these efforts have not been successful. Some of the organizations making the largest financial contributions in 1965 are shown on the tabulation on page 38.[27]

One of these agencies, the National Apprenticeship Service (SENA),[28] is independently financed by a payroll tax and thus has the advantage of having its income increase along with economic growth and inflation. The Ministry of National Education, on the other hand, is handicapped by the fact that although the number of pupils is increasing, it has no guarantee that its sources of financial support will increase proportionately.

School Construction

In 1961 the National Government assumed responsibility for public school construction, originally the responsibility of the municipal districts. In 1963 the Administrative Office for Joint Educational Programs (OAPEC) constructed 831 classrooms, each designed for 40 pupils; and its immediate successor, the Colombian Institute of School Construction (ICCE), became responsible for constructing, equipping, and improving elementary and secondary school facilities. Of the public schools, only half had running water and only one-third had electricity. Private facilities (usually urban) were nearly twice as well equipped.[29]

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[25] T. Lynn Smith, *Colombia: Social Structure and the Process of Development*. Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1967. p. 324.
[26] Legters. op. cit. p. 285.
[27] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. 1:90–92.
[28] For further information on SENA, see chapter 8.
[29] Arizmendi Posada. op. cit. 1:109–10.

Organizations	1965 *Contributions in —* *Service*	*Pesos*
	MINISTRIES	
Agriculture	Organized and administered courses in agricultural extension for farm leaders.	4,495,941
Defense	Organized and administered secondary and university education for officers and literacy programs for recruits.	59,993,320
Government	Provided training courses for community-action leaders.	12,731,840
Health	Organized and administered courses in public health and first aid.	16,616,182
Justice	Provided elementary education to help rehabilitate juveniles.	14,846,760
	MISCELLANEOUS	
Colombian Petroleum Company.	Supported primary and secondary schools for employees' children.	9,704,147
Institute of Tobacco Development.	Provided courses in farm management and home improvement for tobacco growers and maintained schools for their children.	4,336,000
National Apprenticeship Service.	Provided vocational and worker training.	128,895,000
National Federation of Coffee Producers.	Provided courses in farm management and home improvement for coffee growers and maintained schools for their children.	51,000,000
National Police	Provided courses on public administration.	26,435,641

Scholarships

Under Decree 156 of 1967 official elementary education is completely free, but secondary education charges a tuition which varies at progressively graduated rates according to the parents' income and net worth. In 1967, countrywide secondary scholarships were available amounting to some 20 million pesos.[30] Such scholarships are distributed regionally from National, Department, and municipal scholarship budgets on the basis of student grades and need. About one-sixth of secondary scholarships are granted for study in private institutions, and about one-fourth of all secondary students, public and private, have scholarships covering tuition and/or dormitory and board.[31]

Enrollment

In 1968, total public and private school enrollments were the following: [32]

[30] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. I:168.
[31] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 218–19.
[32] *For elementary and secondary education:* Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *Censo de Establecimientos Educativos: 1968.* Bogotá: April 1970. p. 1. *For higher education:* Asociación Colombiana de Universidades *and* Fondo Universitario Nacional. *Estadísticas de la Educación, Superior en Colombia.* Bogotá: División de Planeación, January 1969. p. 3. (Mimeograph)

	*Enrollment**	*Percent*
Total	3,382,890	100.0
Elementary	2,733,342	80.8
Secondary	586,704	17.3
Higher	62,844	1.9

*Not counted in this tabulation were 166,378 children in preelementary schools.

During the same year of 1968, 177 children out of every 1,000 persons in the total population were attending school—a rise of 15 children over the number attending in 1966.

Generally speaking, Colombia's school retention rate today is the following for every 1,000 children who enter grade 1: [33]

Reach grade 5 of elementary school	*Enter grade I of secondary school*	*Finish grade VI of secondary school*	*Enter the university*
150	130	35	26

Although public school elementary education is free, about 25 percent of the elementary school-age population do not attend school. In 1965, the following percents of Bogotá's school-age elementary or secondary population were in school: [34]

Elementary (ages 7–12)....74
Secondary (ages 13–19)....31

The record for Cali's and Medellín's school-age population was roughly the same.

Table 2 shows for 1951 and 1964 the number of persons over 7 years old who had completed each level of schooling and the percent that number represents of the comparable population.

The average level of schooling for Colombians in 1951 was 1.9 years; in 1964, 2.4. Variations existed, however; in 1964 Bogotá and various Departments reported the following average number of years of schooling: [35]

Bogotá	4.2	Boyacá	2.1
Atlántico	3.1	Córdoba	1.8
Valle	3.1	Chocó	1.4
Antioquia	3.0		

The School Calendar

Colombian children attend school Monday through Saturday for 33 weeks spread through 10 months. Schools observe either of two calendars. The one most widely used begins during the first week in February and continues into November. Vacation is a week at Easter and about 20 days in June and July.

An alternate calendar is favored in the Southwest, particularly in Cauca, Nariño, Valle, and the Comisaría del Putamayo, where the tradition dates back to the time when these were separate political units. The alternative calendar extends from early September until late June, with several weeks at Christmas and one at Easter.[36] Examinations for secondary schools continue for 2 weeks after classes end. Elementary and

[33] Arizmendi Posada. op. cit. p. 76.
[34] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. VIII:212, 214, and 216.
[35] Ibid. I:106.
[36] Decree 1902 of 1969.

Table 2.—*Number of persons over 7 years old who have completed each level of schooling; and percent that number represents of the comparable population: 1951 and 1964*

Level and grade	1951		1964	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total	*8,371,311*	[1] *100.0*	*13,299,014*	[1] *100.0*
Elementary				
1	750,738	9.0	1,492,730	11.2
2	1,047,695	12.5	2,005,265	15.1
3	937,573	11.2	1,807,928	13.6
4	802,675	9.6	1,286,297	9.7
5	495,433	5.9	1,228,357	9.2
Secondary				
I	101,286	1.2	264,367	2.0
II	128,219	1.5	239,800	1.8
III	104,276	1.3	186,376	1.4
IV	81,078	1.0	141,821	1.1
V	47,828	0.6	76,442	0.6
VI	52,990	0.6	126,011	1.0
University				
1	5,285	0.1	15,963	0.1
2	7,226	0.1	14,543	0.1
3	5,711	0.1	12,607	0.1
4	6,800	0.1	13,959	0.1
5	9,516	0.1	22,890	0.1
6	12,1[illegible]	0.1	24,673	0.2
No Ascertained Level or Grade [2]				
Other education	72,931	0.9	285,526	2.2
Illiterates	3,701,946	44.2	4,053,459	30.5

[1] With each item rounded to the nearest one-tenth percent, the actual total of the items is over 100.0 percent.

[2] In 1951, the average level of schooling attained by the population was 1.9 years; in 1964, 2.4 years.

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministeria de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, 1967. I:104–05. (The number of children under age 7 with schooling is negligible.)

secondary public and private schools are expected to observe the calendar set by the Ministry of National Education, unless it grants them special exemptions. In practice, however, many schools open several weeks late, and rural schools often close during harvest time. Special holidays also cut down the actual number of days children spend in class.

Texts and Teaching Materials

In spite of Government campaigns and school inspectors' efforts, the number of textbooks is limited except in some of the better Departmental and private schools. To be purchased usually at local bookstores, the textbooks prove too costly for many families. Since teachers and school officials often receive a kickback from bookstores for texts which their students purchase, a 1969 decree imposes a fine on public schools which change a given textbook more often than once in 3 years. By 1970, a total of 420,000 free texts had been distributed to first- and second-year elementary school children in five Departments.[37]

[37] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Boletín de Divulgación Educativa.* March 6, 1970.

The Ministry of National Education encourages teachers to use good supplementary instructional materials, but the majority of teachers favor the lecture method, combined with sufficient recitation to see if students remember the precise wording of their exposition. Although many schools now make functional use of science laboratory equipment, maps, and other teaching aids, until about 10 years ago they customarily kept such things in locked cabinets or cases, only to be looked at. Today, teachers' manuals for elementary and secondary courses are generally of good quality. Roman Catholic schools use textbooks prepared mainly by Catholic publishers but adapted, under Government order, to the Government's official course of studies and subject to the Ministry of National Education's approval.

Language of Instruction

Schools in the Colombian educational system use Spanish as the language of instruction. (Relatively few unassimilated Indian groups do not speak Spanish.) Other schools, functioning in Colombia but administered by foreign organizations, in many cases use the language of the organization's home country; but they must hire Colombian teachers to conduct courses dealing with Colombia's geography and history in Spanish.

Problems

Despite the fact that many Colombian Ministers of Education have possessed obvious ability, their tenure has often been brief. Of the 55 Ministers serving between 1935 and 1970, several were unacquainted with the problems of public education. This fact has hindered the Ministry from coordinating and planning many well-conceived programs. The Colombian Federation of Educators, a national teachers union, has complained that the Ministry has not consulted sufficiently with teachers when making important decisions. As a result, the union claims, some policies have been ill-advised.[38]

Administrative paralysis also poses a problem. On the one hand, the Colombian Constitution places responsibility on Department Governors and assemblies for establishing schools, making teacher appointments, and setting salaries. On the other hand, the Constitution delegates to the National Government the task of financing and supervising a program over which it has had little real control until recently. This apparent, but ineffective, National Government control over education in the Department schools has led to considerable waste and duplication of effort in the use of facilities. The recently devised Regional Educational Funds should, however, improve these conditions.

There has been a great need to integrate effectively those national agencies which perform largely educational functions—particularly ICETEX, SENA, and the former National University Fund which have sometimes worked at cross purposes. Then, too, some of these agencies have had more effective political and financial support than the Ministry of National Education and have understandably not been eager to share their resources. Decree 3157 of 1968 responded to these problems by more effectively centralizing national educational policymaking. At the same

[38] *Renovación Educativa*, August 6, 1967. p. 4.

time the Decree decentralized educational administration, thus significantly diminishing the importance of these criticisms as that legislation goes into effect.[39]

There is an even greater need to enforce the existing laws, many of which are constructive and desirable, but which are also infrequently or inadequately obeyed.[40] Finally, there is a need for broader diffusion of a new concept of administrative leadership: to place a higher value on competence than on political affiliation.

[39] Arizmendi Posada. op. cit. p. 10.
[40] Primer Congreso Pedagógica Nacional. *Carrera Profesional Docente, Comision IV.* ca. 1966. p. 2. (Mimeograph)

5. Planning and Development

Good planning emphasizes that the purpose of collecting data and organizing activities under a plan is to deal more effectively with problems or to avoid them entirely. Good planning also helps to identify problems and determine priorities. Although no amount of planning research can decide whether improving elementary education, for example, is more important than expanding university study, the data gathered during research may provide a more efficient basis for deciding where reform ought to begin.

Developmental Problems

Colombia's educational planners today face a great many developmental problems. The Ministry of National Education has stated that some of the most important ones facing the planners are to—

1. Create a technical diploma program for the last 2 or 3 secondary years.
2. Draft a new elementary and secondary teaching law so that only those teachers possessing the appropriate educational preparation can become certified.
3. Elevate and expand normal schools to 5 years from their present 4 years, making these schools the last 2 years of a 6-year secondary education program.
4. Eliminate the elementary teacher and school building shortage which has resulted from rapid population expansion.
5. Encourage university professors to pursue advanced study abroad.
6. Improve the quality of administrative personnel.
7. Improve the systems of:
   *Scholarship distribution
   *Teacher evaluation
   *Teacher supervision.
8. Revise the curriculums, especially those in the large, new comprehensive national high schools to make them more relevant than formerly to Colombian life.
9. Standardize rural elementary schools to make them the equal of urban schools.[1]

The extensive statistical information which the Colombian Government has gathered during the past decade enables it to identify needed educational reforms with greater precision than was heretofore possible.

Background of Educational Planning

Shortages of foreign manufactured goods during World War II con-

[1] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. I:24–26. (Mimeograph).

vinced many Colombians who had become accustomed to these shortages and who had been trained abroad that they might successfully utilize in Colombia the manufacturing and economic skills of the developed nations. A pioneer effort to establish an institution which could relate these foreign skills to Colombian problems was that of the University of Los Andes.

Founded in 1949 by Mario Laserna, a graduate in mathematics from Columbia University, Los Andes was an admitted imitation on a smaller scale of some of the best features of U.S. higher education. Compulsory class attendance, a credit system with electives (rather than the traditional fixed curriculum), and general education rather than premature specialization featured prominently in Los Andes' program. The new university did much to stimulate study abroad through its program designed to prepare students for advanced study in foreign countries (especially the United States). Another function of the institution was to provide a higher education independent of the political and religious influences which at that time interfered with the integrity and effectiveness of instruction in many Colombian universities.

Until the Institute for Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX) was founded in the 1950's, however, most of the positions of leadership and responsibility in Colombian development were limited to the economically privileged—formerly the only group which had significant access to higher education. The University of Los Andes and ICETEX did much to foster the spirit of economic self-improvement which made Colombia the first Latin American country to prepare a basic educational plan (*plan integral*). It has since become an example for other nations.

The Currie Plan

Various developmental studies were carried on by foreign as well as Colombian specialists. In 1949 a mission of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, directed by economist Laughlin Currie in collaboration with the National Government, prepared an economic development study. The Currie Plan stressed that if balanced development planning in education were to take place, a central team of planning specialists would have to be appointed to advise the Ministry of National Education.

The Celestín and Other Studies

In 1956 the National Planning Committee employed the French economist Georges Celestín to make a study of the nation's educational problems. A Ministry of National Education report by planning specialist Chailloux Danteul reaffirmed a need for long-range planning, to put order and purpose into educational procedures. About the same time, a mission directed by P. J. L. Lebret proposed a national educational development policy and provided much of the necessary background work for a fundamental educational reform. These studies resulted in efforts to change (at least in theory) the character and content of Colombian education. In response to such efforts, Dr. Gabriel Betancur Mejía, then Minister of Education, employed Dr. Ricardo Diez Hochleitner, a Spanish authority on educational planning, to organize and direct basic educational planning for Colombia. In 1957, Decrees 206 and 2351 created the Office

of Planning, composed of experts in various fields of education. This body prepared the first 5-year plan (in five volumes) based on the studies mentioned previously.[2]

Direct Results of the Studies

Political leaders began to pay more attention to education and the Government decided to include an increased education budget in the 1958 plebiscite reform. Also, the Government has used the first 5-year plan as the basic element in restructuring and redirecting certain aspects of educational policy which it later carried out in practice. In this restructuring and redirecting, the Government has—

1. Changed the methods of educational finance.
2. Created experimental pilot schools.
3. Given further training to teachers who lack necessary diplomas.
4. Increased elementary education budgets.
5. Organized intensive courses for secondary school graduates who want to enter teaching.
6. Started systematic training for school supervisors.

Unfortunately, economic and political considerations have made it impossible for the Ministry of National Education to put the 5-year plan into effect systematically.[3]

Many other reports and studies have reinforced the Government's efforts, among them the following: *Memorias* of the Ministry of National Education to Congress, Principal Project No. 1 of UNESCO for Latin America on improving basic education, Report of the Colombian Delegation to the Conference on Education, Social Development in Latin America, and Study of the Conditions of Development in Colombia.

The international nature of the planning movement confers considerable prestige to the idea of full-time planners and thus exerts considerable pressure on a Latin American Government to support planning efforts. This results in a great deal of *formal* Government support of the idea of educational planning, without necessarily giving the needed political support or autonomy required to make the procedure function effectively.[4] Little doubt exists that the Colombian Government's support for planning is sincere; but lack of communication and consultation between Government leaders and those who could make major contributions to the effective implementation of new programs is frequently cited as a serious weakness. Government leaders often hold posts because of their superior personal talents and high-level political affiliations. As a result, such leaders sometimes feel that it would be inappropriate for them to consult with members of subordinate professional groups in order to implement worthwhile policy objectives.

The Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation

After the Ministry of Education had established the Office of Planning and that Office had prepared a 5-year education plan, the Government of Colombia, the Organization of American States, and UNESCO in

[2] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia*. Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1965. p. 85.
[3] Ibid. pp. 86–87.
[4] Ibid. pp. 294–95.

1958 jointly sponsored an educational planning seminar in which all Latin American countries participated. In 1960 the Office of Planning became the Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation; it was placed directly under the Minister of Education. In 1961, the Ministry presented a 10-year General Development Plan to the country, and in 1963 the Ministry was host to the Third Inter-American Meeting of Ministers of Education.

The Alliance for Progress Program

For 1961–65, the Alliance for Progress program envisioned the following plans:

1. Construct and furnish 22,000 classrooms.
2. Give further inservice training to 11,160 employed teachers.
3. Give professional training to inspectors and school directors.
4. Enroll 2,324,620 children in elementary school by 1965.
5. Train 9,540 students to become teachers.[5]

In the early 1960's, however, the Government encountered difficulties with the 5-year plan. These difficulties seemed to stem from two things: insufficient coordination with programs of social and economic development and a lack of articulation between the Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation and the Department secretariats of education.[6]

Functions

Decree 3248 of 1963 reorganized the Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation, making it directly responsible to the Ministry of National Education Cabinet. The Decree established a staff of 23 members, 13 of them professionals, and set forth the functions of the Office. In carrying out its functions the Office will, among other things, do the following: [7]

1. Coordinate the Ministry of National Education's work (for example, prepare a projected budget for the Minister's approval).
2. Help prepare Ministry-arranged agreements and contracts with Department, international, municipal, and other agencies.
3. Prepare both short-range and long-range programs for public and private education.
4. Study the educational and cultural problems and needs of the entire country.

During recent years, the Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation has emphasized the preparation of analytical studies, documents, and reports for each of the successive Ministers of Education to use in determining national educational policy. Yet, despite their importance, the functions of coordination and evaluation have not been implemented. The plans advanced by the Ministry of National Education employ the National Development Plan as a point of departure. A new 5-year plan for education has been established for 1970–74. The Colombian Association of Universities has its own office of university planning and has carried out a series of short-term plans.

[5] W. O. Galbraith. *Colombia: A General Survey*. London: Oxford University Press, 1966. p. 58. (2d edition).
[6] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 87.
[7] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *El Desarrollo Educativo*. Bogotá: Memoria al Congreso Nacional de 1963, Imprenta Nacional, 1964. II:106.

Results of the 1967 Reforms

Many proposed reforms represent conclusions reached by full-time planners on the Ministry of National Education's staff. Although their plans may not be as well integrated as would be desirable, they do represent a combination of careful thought and political feasibility. The Ministry's 1967 reforms set in motion the following improvements: [8]

1. Budget increase allocated for educational television in elementary schools.
2. Coeducation in elementary schools whose class enrollments are small.
3. Double sessions, particularly in secondary schools having the greatest demand for them.
4. Increased number of National Government secondary schools.
5. Integration (on a regional basis) of public schools sponsored by the National, Departmental, and municipal governments.
6. Intensive use (*funcionamiento intensivo*) of elementary schools.
7. Rural schools in areas where a single teacher is responsible for teaching the equivalent of five grades (*escuela unitaria*).

The New Prestige of Economics

Fifteen years ago Colombian universities had no *facultades* of economics, no students were majoring in economics, and only two or three Colombians held economics degrees. The Colombian Government had no Department of Planning, no Department of Statistics, and no Cost-of-Living Index. Today, however, the universities have 17 *facultades* (departments or schools) of economics with about 1,500 students.[9] In 1964, Decree 1297 permitted universities to confer the degree of *economista* as a professional degree, reserving the less prestigious *licenciado* for other similar fields of study.

The Church's Interest

The defection of former priest Camilo Torres to the ranks of the anti-Government forces, and his death in 1966 at the hands of Government troops, aroused special concern on the part of the Roman Catholic Church regarding questions of economic and educational development. Founded at Bogotá in 1944, the Church's Center for Research and Social Action (CIAS) has in recent years conducted 40 short courses and seminars attended by 791 priests. With an 8,000-volume library, the Center does socioeconomic research designed to encourage constructive social change. In 1968, aided by German Roman Catholics, the affiliated Institute of Doctrine and Social Studies (IDES) began to teach courses, which were aimed at professionals as well as leaders of the poorer classes, on social change in Latin America.[10]

Hindrances to National Development

Leaders in Colombia possess a keener faith in planning and managed growth than do those in many other Latin American countries having similar difficulties. This faith gives the Colombians grounds for optimism, but they face certain persistent basic difficulties.

One of the difficulties is the absence of a significant public dialog on

[8] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. I:25.
[9] Laughlin Currie. *La Ensenañza de la Economía en Colombia.* Bogotá: Tercer Mundo, 1967. pp. 9–10.
[10] *El Siglo,* February 12, 1968.

just what education can contribute toward building a more prosperous nation for all Colombians.[11] Part of this particular difficulty has resulted from the notion that "development" is a concept so untouchable, dealing with economic and sociological studies so complicated, that many people (even those with a previous real interest in education) hesitate to commit themselves to involvement. People are overawed by the remedies propounded by the professional planners throughout Latin America who have a spirit and unity all their own.

Still another difficulty is the natural tendency to look to the National Government as the traditional source of initiative. (Government officials often share this view of their role.) Despite the sincere concern of all for educational reform, there has been a general lack of collaboration between the Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation and various other concerned groups.[12] This situation is made still more difficult by another general lack: no effective grass-roots organizations exist to serve as a nucleus for indigenous educational reform. Many of the less favored social classes, which ought to be actively proposing their own reforms, are inclined to look to the Government to provide solutions for social and educational difficulties in much the same manner as they look to God or the Church to provide solutions for spiritual problems.

Some conditions detrimental to national development can be found in the school itself. Textbooks and classroom lectures usually treat problems theoretically—that is, on a relatively high level of abstraction without application to a concrete situation. Teachers are often more fascinated by the process of formal logic than by the specific solution to an immediate problem. In fact, much traditional teaching (particularly in the established required courses on philosophy and religion) is hostile to socioeconomic development. This teaching treats distinctions between body and soul, holiness and worldliness, and God's will and human responsibility as dichotomies. Likewise, this teaching attempts to inculcate final truths, rather than tolerance for a variety of ideas different from one's own. Philosophy does not create a questioning attitude; instead, it provides final and definitive answers. Some statements from textbooks illustrate these points:

> Natural kindness (without a religious motivation) has no positive value in the eyes of God.
>
> A man is more esteemed for his spiritual qualities than for his worldly ability.[13]

Another textbook statement in effect attempts to refute the idea of democracy itself (in other words, Rousseau's assertion that the people are sovereign because all authority originates with them):

> Authority comes from God; it cannot reside with the people, since they have no natural or acquired authority. The authority of the people is fragile, since when everyone decides (thinks), no one is responsible.[14]

Some Colombians believe that since the Roman Catholic Church is both powerful and conservative, it may become a positive force in bringing

[11] Joaquín Paéz Gómez. *Education and National Development in Colombia.* Stanford: Stanford International Development Education Center, 1969. p. 146.
[12] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 259–61.
[13] Ibid. pp. 303–04.
[14] Ibid.

about radical social changes through evolutionary rather than revolutionary means. Other Colombians, however, see it as a major deterrent to public educational reform.

Developmental Trends and Activities

Enrollment

Colombian education is expanding rapidly but not fast enough to meet the country's needs. As shown, the rate of expansion is greatest in higher education:[15]

	Enrollment in thousands					*Percent of 1955 figure*				
	1955	*1958*	*1963*	*1965*	*1968*	*1955*	*1958*	*1963*	*1965*	*1968*
Elementary	1,236	1,493	2,096	2,270	2,733	100.0	120.1	169.6	183.7	271.1
Secondary	135	215	360	405	587	100.0	159.3	266.7	300.0	434.8
Higher	13	19	34	43	63	100.0	146.2	261.5	330.8	484.6

Despite its growth, Colombian education remains for many an expensive luxury, dominated by an elite tradition with little relevance to the condition of the masses. The lower classes have become increasingly aroused to seek schooling as a means of social mobility. Rural violence has led many peasants to save their money in order to educate their children rather than buy land, as before.[16] Others migrate to urban areas where schooling is available or send their children to live with relatives in communities with better schools. Although population increases result in a mounting number of illiterates, the proportion of illiterates to the general population is reduced each year. The economically active population also has been increasing numerically; but the percentage of the total population contributing by its economic activity to the support of education has declined from 34.4 percent in 1938 to 33.4 percent in 1951, and then to 29.4 percent in 1964. At the same time people are also shifting to urban occupations, which require more training.[17]

Agricultural Education

The system of monoculture which characterizes much of Colombian agriculture has also effectively limited the educational aspirations of the rural population. Since workers in simple agrarian jobs do not receive extra pay for superior educational qualifications, levels of training tend to remain low. Thus a vicious circle is created in which low technological levels in agriculture and low educational levels make development difficult. This fact suggests that educational goals ought to favor fundamental change rather than simply more improvements in the existing situation.[18]

The Colombian Institute of Agrarian Reform (INCORA) [19] has encouraged one fundamental change. This rural development agency has found

[15] From data provided by the Ministry of National Education, Office of Educational Planning. March 1970.
[16] Orlando Fals Borda. "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of Education in Colombia," in *The Caribbean: Contemporary Colombia* (A. Curtis Wilgus, ed.). Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962. p. 200.
[17] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Antecedentes y Perspectivas del Desarrollo Cuantitativo de la Educación Superior en Colombia, 1968–1975.* Bogotá: Division de Planeación, October 1967. pp. 10–14.
[18] Ibid. p. 15.
[19] See chapter 8, section on Agricultural Education.

that frequently it is more economical for a peasant to live in a small central village of 16 or more families than to live on an individual farm. It also believes that small central villages offer the only feasible way to extend community services such as education and water and, eventually, electricity and sewerage. Finally, INCORA feels that the peasant will find rural living more pleasurable if he is less isolated and that he will benefit from village living by having helpful examples to follow.[20]

Middle-Class Educational Goals

A natural tendency exists for members of the middle class to aspire to the value system of the influential elite class. Middle-class members tend to use education as a means for acquiring, symbolically, an upper-class concept of themselves and experience difficulty in developing the kind of self-respect which is necessary to develop viable middle-class values. At the same time, however, these middle-class people are moving in a positive direction. For example, during the last 10 years, secondary school students have been more and more inclined to major in the less traditional fields. As an aid to such a choice, the Colombian Government is making a major effort to build large comprehensive secondary schools [21] which will offer a wider range of vocational and social class interests and which will help achieve more effective social integration.

Finally, the expansion of student credit, especially in higher education, gives more Colombians a growing confidence that they will achieve their ultimate educational goals.

[20] Pat M. Holt. *Colombia Today—and Tomorrow*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964. p. 92.
[21] See chapter 7, section on National Institutes of Middle Education (INEM).

6. Kindergarten and Elementary Education

According to Decree 1637 of 1960, elementary education (nearly always called *educación primaria*) consists of kindergarten (sometimes referred to as preschool) education, the traditional elementary education, and adult literacy programs. Usually conducted under private auspices, kindergarten education begins about age 5; elementary, officially at age 7.

A. KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION

The Institutions and the Children

Children as young as age 4 attend kindergarten (*jardín infantil*) and some attend through age 6. To serve working mothers the National Government has established six public kindergartens in the poor neighborhoods of some of Colombia's capital cities. These kindergartens function on the principle that social maturation is more important than academic preparation.[1] They seek primarily to influence parents to take an active interest in their children's development and also to serve as demonstration centers for private kindergartens. Although the Government believes that kindergarten is desirable, it has only limited resources which at present do not permit school expansion at that level.

Private kindergartens abound. Many of them emphasize an academic program, partly because Colombian children do not enter first grade until age 7; and some also offer a 2d year, called the "transition." Nine out of 10 kindergarteners attend private institutions, which cater to the urban upper class.

In 1968, 16,302 children attended a total of 258 public kindergartens; 94,192 attended a total of 3,119 private kindergartens. Both types offer separate institutions for boys and girls and also institutions taking boys and girls together. The 1968 breakdown of these institutions was as follows: [2]

[1] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Orientaciones sobre Educación Pre-escolar*. Bogotá: División de Educación Elemental, 1966. p. 21. (Mimeograph)
[2] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *Censo de Establecimientos Educativos: 1968*. Bogotá: April 1970. pp. 7–9.

	Public	*Private*
Total	258	3,119
Boys only	21	150
Girls only	28	210
Coeducational (*mixto*)	209	2,759

Of the entire public and private kindergarten enrollment in 1968, almost one-third attended institutions in Bogotá; large numbers were concentrated also in Barranquilla, Cali, and Medellín.

The Ministry's Services

The Ministry has been active in kindergarten-level teacher training and parent guidance. For example, in 1962–67 it offered 38 courses for 3,564 prospective kindergarten teachers and 110 lectures for nearly 7,000 parents. The teacher courses were particularly helpful to young women wanting to learn new methods of kindergarten teaching.

In 1962–67 the Ministry distributed a large number of textbooks and other materials for the guidance of both teachers and parents.

The Ministry's encouragement had already led the Universidad Pedagógica Femina in Bogotá to establish a program to prepare kindergarten teaching in 1958. There is also a school for this purpose in Medellín.

B. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION

Purposes

The Colombian Government has stated the purposes of elementary education in terms differing little from those used by the Governments of other countries. According to Decree 1710 of 1963, Colombian education seeks to—

1. Contribute to the child's harmonious development and the optimum structuring of his personality, with a Christian attitude toward life in a free and democratic tradition.
2. Encourage a sense of civic spirit, national identity, and solidarity with all peoples of the world.
3. Inculcate habits of cleanliness, hygiene, and intelligent use of inner resources.
4. Prepare the child for a life of responsibility and employment in accordance with his individual aptitudes and interests.
5. Provide the child with a sound basic education.

Attitude Toward Public Schools

Although public elementary education is often of high quality, taught by teachers generally well paid, there is frequently a stigma attached to sending one's child to a public school. In many Departments (States), people regard free public education as pauper education, and parents of only modest means often prefer private schools for their children. Frequently the director of a public elementary school will send his own children of elementary school age to a private institution.

The School Year and Class Size

The elementary school year consists of 198 days, including Saturday mornings. Although class schedules vary somewhat with the school's organization, the teacher is expected to spend about 6 hours daily with her pupils. In double-session schools, each session is 5 hours daily. Many schools have been operating on double session since 1951.

Class size, or pupil-teacher ratio, varies with the kind of institution. In 1965 public elementary schools averaged 36 pupils per teacher; private, 27.[3] The ratio in some Departments is as high as 80:1.

Number of Grades

Before 1963 Colombia had three types of elementary schools: The alternated 2-year rural school, the 4-year rural school established in 1950, and the 5-year urban school. The principal defect of this triple system was that it discriminated against rural children.

Decree 1710 of 1963 stated that elementary education would consist of a "compulsory" 5-year course having the same curriculum for both urban and rural schools. Despite this Decree, however, vocational emphasis and school-related activities vary considerably as between city and country areas, and incomplete elementary schools of only two or three grades continue to function in the latter areas. The Ministry is trying in various ways to carry out the provisions of Decree 1710.

The following tabulation shows the number of urban and rural schools offering one, two, three, four, or five grades in 1966:[4]

Number of grades	*Urban*		*Rural*	
	Number	*Percent*	*Number*	*Percent*
Total	7,614	100.0	16,824	100.0
One	316	4.2	755	4.5
Two	588	7.7	9,897	58.7
Three	711	9.3	3,604	21.4
Four	953	12.5	1,580	9.6
Five	5,046	66.3	988	5.8

Pupils: Ages and Enrollment

Ages

The elementary school is officially composed of children from age 7 to 11, but the age bracket varies considerably around the country. For example, in 1961 a total of 428,267 elementary pupils (23.9 percent) were age 12 or older. For the country as a whole the average starting age was 9 years, 4 months; but in rural areas it was often much older than that.[5]

[3] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. II:14. (Mimeograph)

[4] Departamento Nacional de Planeación. *Planes y Programas de Desarrollo: Sector Educación.* Bogotá: June 18, 1969. (Mimeograph)

[5] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia.* Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1965. p. 113.

Enrollment

In 1950, public elementary schools enrolled 93.8 percent of all elementary pupils; in 1965, 86 percent, a figure reflecting the fact that private and church educational facilities were generally expanding. As between urban and rural areas, the percentage of all elementary enrollment (public and private together) for the former areas was 50.5 in 1950 and 64.3 in 1965, this latter figure reflecting the fact that families were migrating rapidly to the cities.[6] Among their reasons for doing so were two: The quality of teaching in the cities was superior to that in the rural villages and many rural village schools offered instruction in only two or three grades.

Chart 2 shows the 1964 enrollment by grade and the population in the corresponding age group for elementary urban and rural schools. In that year, the number of pupils in the first three grades of urban schools exceeded the number of children in the corresponding school-age population (ages 7, 8, and 9). The reason is that many of the children enrolled a year or two late or, having failed a grade, were repeating it. In the same year in the first grade of rural village schools the number of children also exceeded the number in the corresponding school-age population. The reason here is that many did not begin first grade until age 8, 9, 10, or 11, or were repeating it.

The figures for 1964 are not peculiar to that year alone, but are rather typical. Raw data for any year may be misleading. Table 3 shows the number of pupils in elementary public and private schools, by age and grade, for 1968. In that year, the total number of elementary school-age children (7 to 11 years) in the population was 2,776,000, while the number of children (of any age) enrolled in elementary schools was 2,733,432. Comparing these figures one might conclude that 98.4 percent of children ages 7 to 11 were in school. Actually, 23 percent of the children in elementary schools in 1968 were older than age 11, and 17 percent of these children were repeaters. Thus, the actual percentage of 7- to 11-year-old children who were in school was much lower than the raw data seem to indicate.

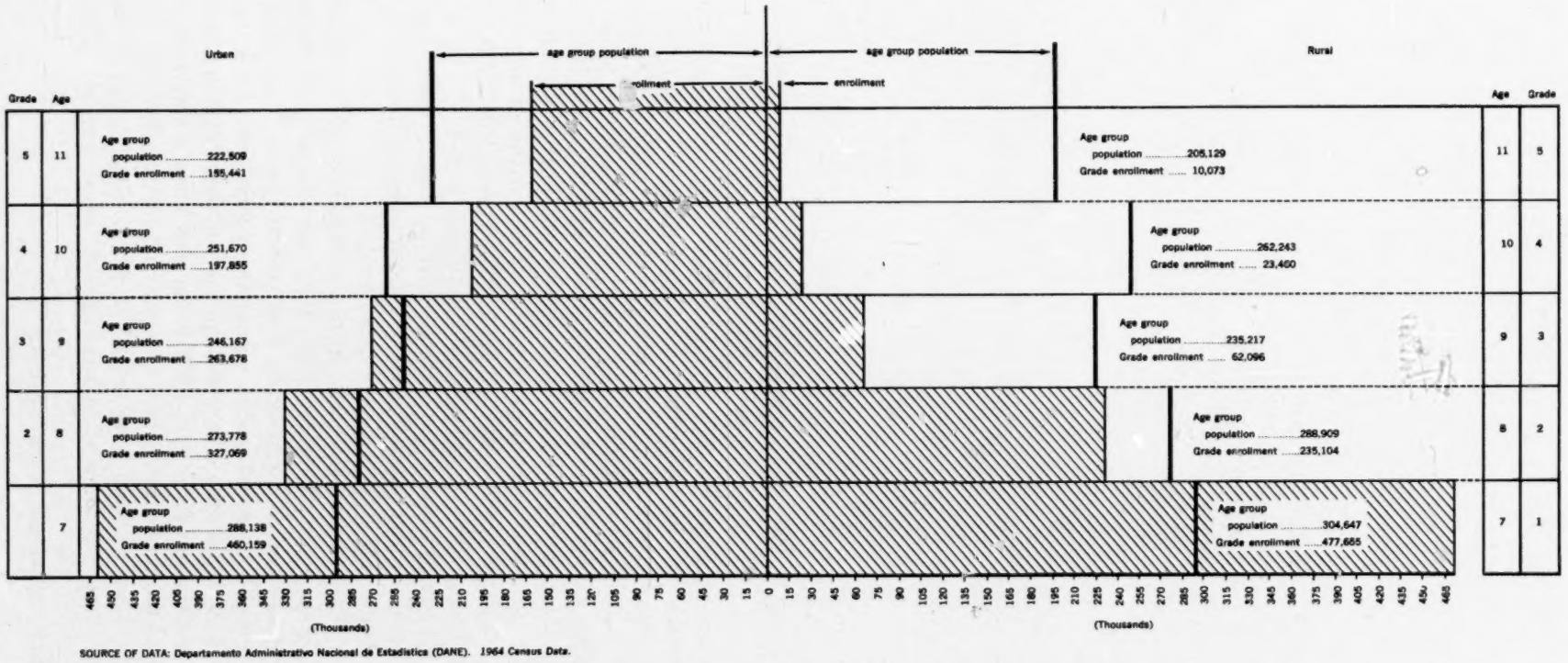
Dropouts and Absentees

Dropouts

The most crucial problem, perhaps, in Colombia's elementary education is the tendency of pupils to drop out of school long before they have finished the course. Such a practice not only deprives them of a complete educational experience as far as the Colombian elementary system would carry them but it also denies the nation an efficient and productive use of resources.

In 1965, of all urban children who had entered grade 1, only 43.8 percent entered grade 5; of all rural children, only 3.0 percent. Taken together, both urban and rural, the number of children who had entered grade 1 in 1961 was reduced in 1965 to only 22.7 percent entering grade 5. Regional variations were considerable. For example, in urban Bogotá,

[6] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto.* . . . op. cit. 1:41.



SOURCE OF DATA: Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadistica (DANE). 1964 Census Data.

Chart 2. Enrollment by Grade; and Population by Corresponding Age Group in Elementary Urban and Rural Schools: 1964

Table 3.—*Number of pupils in elementary public and private schools, by age and grade: 1968*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Age	Total	Grade				
		1	2	3	4	5
PUBLIC						
Total	*2,213,405*	*895,774*	*552,225*	*357,902*	*240,768*	*176,736*
7 and under	311,767	291,082	20,685	.....	.....	.....
8	337,777	217,368	104,150	16,259	.....	.....
9	328,280	138,946	121,777	56,912	10,645	.....
10	334,994	99,639	111,369	81,366	35,037	7,583
11	282,301	58,385	76,340	71,090	52,290	24,196
12	260,032	40,412	59,692	60,788	57,130	42,010
13	172,417	20,337	31,513	38,310	41,554	40,703
14 and over	185,837	19,605	26,699	33,177	44,112	62,244
PRIVATE						
Total	*520,027*	*170,292*	*107,251*	*91,252*	*77,094*	*74,138*
7 and under	111,799	94,171	17,628	.....	.....	.....
8	81,024	32,271	33,747	15,006	.....	.....
9	74,667	16,688	21,461	25,239	11,279	.....
10	73,579	10,643	13,250	19,579	20,096	10,011
11	59,998	5,790	7,777	12,183	16,552	17,696
12	47,600	4,513	5,737	8,304	12,213	16,833
13	30,102	2,299	3,160	4,882	7,714	12,047
14 and over	41,258	3,917	4,491	6,059	9,240	17,551

SOURCE OF DATA: Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *Censo de Nacional de Población.* Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional, 1968. pp. 138 and 141.

52.7 percent reached the fifth grade and similar percentages occurred in urban sections of the Departments of Atlántico, Boyacá, and Valle. The rural area around Bogotá, however, retained only 13.9 percent, rural Boyacá 2.8 percent, Nariño 1.0 percent, and Valle 4.4 percent.[7]

Analyzing school dropout (*deserción*) is not so simple as might be expected. In urban areas, for example, more pupils come into elementary grade 3 than have just passed from grade 2. This is because many rural schools offer only two or three grades, thus requiring children who wish to continue their education to move to the cities. Also complicating analysis is the fact that pupils often leave school without taking their final examinations. Some do return later, however, thus making it difficult to determine just how many have dropped out permanently.

Many children take 2 or more years to complete a grade; about one-fifth of all children repeat their 1st year. This has the effect of denying school enrollment to some children because of lack of space. This denial of opportunity is greater in rural areas, where the repetition rate is almost twice that of urban areas and where the quality of education is poorest. Bernal found that between 1957 and 1962 there had been a slight increase in the tendency to complete the 5 years, despite rising enrollments. The dropout percentage also declined between 1953 and 1961 in spite of the fact that enrollments increased by 75,000 during the same period.[8] This apparent

[7] Ibid. I:54.
[8] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 116, 113, 120, and 122.

improvement, however, may represent little more than the general tendency of the rural population to move to the cities where better education is more frequently available.

The reasons why elementary pupils drop out of school appear to be many. Available data have definite faults because they were collected by school personnel who overlook certain kinds of explanations. Nevertheless the major reasons for dropping out as uncovered by a 1966 survey are instructive: [9]

	Percent of response	
Reason	*Urban*	*Rural*
Change of residence	35	28
Distance and bad roads	8	11
Illness	15	14
Little parental interest	19	23
To work at home or work outside the home for pay	11	17
Other*	12	7

*Such as the bad condition of the school.

Besides the reasons appearing in the tabulation above, the internal order of the school and family are important, although unlikely to be reported by teachers who collect data. Some of the scholastic reasons which encourage dropping out are the following:

1. Alternatives to the formal program are lacking.
2. Counseling, both for personal and vocational reasons, is lacking.
3. The curriculum is undifferentiated, failing in most communities to adapt itself to the children's needs.
4. Scholastic requirements are so rigid that they minimize individual differences.
5. Teachers are poorly prepared and teaching methods are poor.

Underlying all these reasons why pupils drop out of school is the fact that both administrators and teachers in great numbers hold the view that the process of selecting the most able children in the classroom is more important than helping each child develop his ability to the maximum.[10]

Absentees

One reason for absenteeism, or poor attendance, in the rural elementary school is that school lunches are often unavailable. Another is that parents often rent out their children as laborers on *fincas* for two or three pesos a day, thus adding a source of family income which would be lost if the children were in school. Still another is that parents also often keep their children out in order to help harvest particular crops such as coffee and cotton.

The 1961 rate of absenteeism for the entire country was calculated at 36.3 percent. In order to reduce the rate of elementary school dropout, particularly that resulting from failure at the end of the school year, the Ministry proposes to restructure the elementary program to permit a more

[9] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). "La Educación en Colombia." *Boletín Mensual de Estadística.* 219:123, June 1969.
[10] Glenn R. Varner. *Educación Secundaria en Colombia.* Bogotá: ca. 1965. pp. 47–48. (Mimeograph)

flexible promotion policy in the first three grades. Through this means the Ministry hopes that more children will go on to the last years of elementary school.[11]

Curriculum

The elementary curriculum inaugurated in 1963—shown in table 4—differs from its predecessors in three principal ways: It concentrates more on natural science in the last three grades, it increases the amount of mathematics, and it emphasizes mastery of the national language, Spanish.[12]

The Ministry of National Education publishes carefully prepared guides which describe in elaborate detail how a teacher may present a lesson effectively. Appendix A presents selections from one of these guides. Although teachers in schools administered by the Ministry use such guides widely, they are not available to all teachers in all schools.

The ministry also publishes final examinations which teachers may use if they wish. A sample of a 1st grade final examination in religion is given in appendix B.

Textbooks and Teaching Methods

The Ministry of National Education has made efforts to set up funds for free textbooks, especially on the elementary level. When possible, the schools provide chalk, crayons, notebooks, pencils, and textbooks (especially a reader and a Roman Catholic catechism), but often they are in short supply. Frequently older pupils pass down textbooks to younger pupils. In order to spare parents undue expense, the Ministry prohibits a change of textbooks, if possible, more often than once in every 3 years. Often well organized and appropriately illustrated, textbooks are usually adapted to specific grade levels. Some emphasize practical matters such as agriculture, health, and nutrition. Surprisingly enough, not all teachers own textbooks, and those who do sometimes use them only to a limited extent.

The Aritama Method

The teachers in the Aritama village school study [13] selected from the official curriculum only those subjects which supported local values. Thus, these teachers taught care of dress and shoes, citizenship (*cívica*), manners (*urbanidad*), and needlework; but ignored teaching tasks connected with agriculture, housekeeping, and hygiene. They were very critical of Government subject matter, considering certain topics useless or offensive, particularly those on reforestation and growing of vegetable gardens.

Daily subject matter in Aritama depended upon the whim of the individual teacher, who chose his material from citizenship, geography, history, manners, national history, religion, the Spanish language, and a number of ill-defined subjects. Hardly any of the Aritama teachers used Government textbooks. They preferred to use their own hand-me-down

[11] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto. . . .* op. cit. II:12.
[12] Daniel Arango. *Informe del Ministro de Educación al Congreso Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1966. p. 41.
[13] Gerardo and Alicia Reichel Dolmatoff. *The People of Aritama: The Cultural Personality of a Colombian Mestizo Village.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961. pp. 119–21. See also chapter 2, section on Educational Expectations (in this publication).

Table 4. — *Number of hours in each elementary subject, by grade and subject area: 1963 decree*

Subject area	Grade 1		2		3		4		5	
	Subject	Hours	Subject	Hours	Subject	Hours	Subject	Hours	Subject	Hours
Total		*33*		*33*		*33*		*33*		*33*
Aesthetic and manual education	Music and singing	1	Music and singing	1	Music and singing	1	Music and singing	1	Music and singing	1
	Drawing	1	Drawing	1	Drawing	1	Drawing	1	Drawing	1
	Manual skills	2	Manual skills	2	Manual skills	2	Manual skills	2	Manual skills[1]	2
Mathematics	Arithmetic	5	Arithmetic	5	Arithmetic	4	Arithmetic	4	Arithmetic	4
	Geometry	1	Geometry	1	Geometry	1	Geometry	1	Geometry	1
Moral and religious education	Religion	2	Religion	2	Religion	2	Religion	2	Religion	2
	Religious history	1	Religious history	1	Religious history	1	Religious history	1	Religious history	1
Natural sciences	Introduction to sciences	3	Introduction to sciences	3	Sciences	2	Sciences	2	Sciences	2
					Hygiene	1	Hygiene	1	Hygiene	1
					Gardening	2	Gardening	2	Gardening	2
									Science experiments	1
Physical education	Dancing, educational gymnastics, and organized games	3	Dancing, educational gymnastics, and organized games	3	Dancing, educational gymnastics, and organized games	3	Dancing, educational gymnastics, and organized games	3	Dancing, educational gymnastics, and organized games	3
Social studies	History and geography	3	History and geography	3	History	2	History	2	History	2
	Deportment and civics	2	Deportment and civics	2	Geography	2	Geography	2	Geography	2
					Civics	1	Civics	1	Civics	1
					Deportment	1	Deportment	1	Deportment	1
Spanish	Reading and writing	5	Reading and writing	5	Reading	2	Reading	1	Reading	1
	Vocabulary	2	Vocabulary	2	Writing	1	Writing	1	Writing	1
	Oral and written phraseology	2	Oral and written phraseology	2	Vocabulary	1	Vocabulary	2	Composition	1
					Composition	1	Composition	1	Grammar	2
					Grammar	1	Grammar	1	Spelling	1
					Spelling	1	Spelling	1		

[1] Girls spend half of the allotted time studying child care and home economics.

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Programas de Enseñanza Primaria.* Bogotá: Editorial Bedout, 1964. p. 1.

copybooks containing more or less complete outlines of subject matter arranged as questions and answers, such as the following:

Q. *How does the bee sleep?*
A. Standing.

Q. *How did Bolívar die?*
A. Naked as he was born.

At the beginning of the school day the routine in Aritama was for the children to be sitting or walking in the schoolyard memorizing. During the second hour they would recite and copy their assignments—and so on throughout the day. Little need existed for a child to think—his principal tool was a good memory. If a question were put to him in a form different from that in his notebook he would be totally incapable of answering. If he tried to rephrase his answer, his teacher would be likely to reprimand him.

For teachers in Aritama there were two kinds of knowledge: Practical—acquired from everyday experience; and abstract—taught at school. The latter might contradict actual experience, but it was better because it was "civilized" knowledge. Aritama teachers frequently imposed physical punishment, but their most common and effective method of punishing children was to ridicule them and compare them with Indians.

Other Methods

Although teaching patterns like those in Aritama are not uncommon in rural areas where poorly prepared teachers predominate, even teachers in many of the best urban schools view learning as a passive experience. The concept that learning is receiving does not usually imply to Colombian teachers that knowledge should lead to action—in fact they seldom mention that there is even a bare possibility of a connection between the two.[14]

Many teachers function very effectively, however, in an authoritarian tradition. They are firm, poised, and in personal command of the classroom. Their lucid use of metaphor and definition at the precise moment when class recitation calls for clarity is extremely well organized.

Colombian educational leaders are keenly aware of the faults inherent in the widely used teaching methods described previously, and their efforts at reform are of long standing. These leaders have known the Pestalozzian techniques for over a century. The German delegations to Colombia brought Herbartian ideas, which the Colombians usually modified according to their own values and usually interpreted to favor systematic imposition of information and limited freedom of activity.

On the other hand, the more permissive views of the Belgian educator Decroly have been popular in many of the well-respected urban schools, where his "centers of interest" have replaced old fixed curriculums and given pupils more freedom. Colombian educators have also highly regarded the activity school promoted by Ferrier and others.

Changes in Ministers of Education have often resulted in official shifts in methodology, although recent Ministry policy is both more permissive and more eclectic. Most Colombian teachers are highly dedicated, but

[14] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 303.

many lack imagination and consequently tend to favor dictated lessons and formal recitation techniques.

Examinations

To be promoted, an elementary school child is expected to master the subject matter for his grade. In 1964, 20.2 percent of urban public school boys and 19.6 percent of urban public school girls who took the final elementary examinations were not promoted to the next higher grade. In rural public schools, the failure rate was slightly higher than 20.2; in private schools, urban and rural, considerably lower.[15] The still high percentage of children who repeat a grade is an extra burden for already crowded schools.

The present testing methods in elementary schools are not considered satisfactory. For this reason, in 1964 and 1965 objective examinations were given as an experiment in grades 3, 4, and 5 of Bogotá's public schools. The results were that children considered "poor" by previous testing methods often achieved high scores in objective tests for mathematics, natural sciences, social studies, and the Spanish language.

Part of the problem with examinations is that teachers tend to regard them as a selective device rather than a measure of what pupils should have learned.[16] A large number of failures in any class is often interpreted to mean that the teacher has high standards and that therefore she is a "good" teacher.

Buildings and Services

More than 10 years ago, 31 percent of Colombia's elementary school structures had not been constructed to serve as schools. Many had previously been private homes or *chicha*[17] liquor stores; 38 percent lacked basic hygiene facilities.[18] Today, many rural schools are conducted on rented premises and lack toilets and running water.

According to one survey on rural Colombian education,[19] no new schools had been built in 10 communities and very few of the operating rural schools were buildings designed exclusively as schools, despite the Government's efforts to improve educational facilities. Elsewhere, of 24 schools only five urban buildings were modern, well-kept, and had small libraries. The only other teaching aids in 17 of the 24 were maps of Colombia. Frequently, only one textbook per subject was available in the classroom.

According to another survey,[20] a typical, better-than-average small-town classroom could be described as follows:

> . . . most classrooms are bare of instructional materials. There are almost always some religious pictures and objects on the walls; occasionally, there is an assortment of a dozen or so ragged texts. Quite often, there is a picture of the late President

[15] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estatística (DANE). *La Educación en Colombia, 1963–1964.* Bogotá: November 1966. p. 6. (Mimeograph)

[16] Betty Rodríguez et al. "Evaluación de Conocimientos a Nivel de la Escuela Primaria," *Revista de Psicología* (Bogotá). II:1 and 2:113, 1966.

[17] A native liquor found throughout the Andean countries.

[18] Orlando Fals Borda. "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of Education in Colombia," in *The Caribbean: Contemporary Colombia* (A. Curtis Wilgus, ed.). Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962. p. 210.

[19] A. Eugene Havens. *Education in Rural Colombia: An Investment in Human Resources*. Madison, Wis.: Land Tenure Center, University of Wisconsin, 1965. p. 10. (Mimeograph)

[20] George Comstock and Nathan Maccoby. *The Peace Corps Educational Television Project in Colombia—Two Years of Research: The Day-to-Day Job of the Utilization Volunteer—Structure, Problems, and Solutions* (Research Report No. 5). Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University, Institute for Communication Research, 1966. pp. 41–42. (Mimeograph)

Kennedy. There are, of course, striking exceptions — a classroom filled with maps and pictures, ordered by displays or objects made or assembled by the children, decorated with flowers, a brilliant creation molded by an exceptionally diligent and dedicated teacher.

Thirteen schools in the same survey had an average class size of 53 pupils per teacher, with the first grade somewhat larger than the other grades. Lacking enough desks, several classrooms had three pupils sitting together at each desk.

Sometimes the schools provide supplementary services. During the early 1960's, a total of 1,665 public elementary schools financed by the National Government provided breakfasts and lunches for indigent children. In 1964, public elementary schools in cities serving as headquarters for regional educational centers provided the following services: [21]

43,293 dental examinations and treatments
34,928 medical examinations
26,000 health consultations with parents
11,012 medical treatments
6,963 clinical examinations

Rural Education

Alternated Schools

Of all elementary education in Colombia, the least satisfactory is that found in rural areas. The 2-year rural alternated schools afford a typical example. Authorized in 1958 as a temporary measure, these schools offer a year's total of 188 days of classroom instruction; but since boys and girls alternate every other day, each pupil receives only half of the 188 days, or 94. Further, since each sex is usually divided into 1st- and 2d-year courses, a pupil may actually receive only half of the 94 days, or 47.[22] In 1962, 53 percent of all rural children were still attending alternated schools.

The village of Contadero (population 4,685), in the Department of Nariño, is a typical example.[23] Contadero has 12 one-teacher elementary schools but only three of them offer more than 3 years of study. Not many pupils attend beyond the 2d or 3d year and few can read or write well. Almost one-fourth of the eligible children do not attend any school. Heavy dropout rates often reduce enrollments by one-half during a school year. Sickness, lack of interest on the part of the family, and labor requirements on the small farms of the area during harvesting and planting are the principal reasons for school nonattendance. Only four of Contadero's 12 teachers have had more than 10 years of formal schooling.

Despite the fact that Contadero is in one of Colombia's few areas not affected by violence since 1948, it has had very little educational progress. The Roman Catholic Church is closely associated with the educational

[21] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Conferencial Dictada por el Señor Ministro de Educación en la Escuela Superior de Administración Pública el Dia 7 de Mayo de 1965.* Bogotá: Duplicaciones Mineducación, 1966. pp. 27–28.
[22] Lyman H. Legters et al. *U.S. Army Handbook for Colombia* (Pamphlet No. 550–26). Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. p. 156.
[23] D. W. Adams and A. E. Havens. "The Use of Socio-Economic Research in Developing a Strategy of Change for Rural Communities: A Colombian Example," *Economic Development and Cultural Change.* 14:205, 207, and 213.

system in Contadero, influencing curriculum formation, providing teacher training, and also giving adult education through its radio schools.[24]

A larger place, Cereté (population 29,666—still considered rural) in the Department of Córdoba, has conditions similar to those in Contadero.[25] Also reported in the same survey as Contadero, 25 percent of Cereté's first-graders failed their promotion test. On any given school day, about one-third of Cereté's school children are absent. In addition, many of its teachers fail to appear regularly on the job.

In Cereté, as in Contadero, nonattendance and dropout are not caused solely by failure and lack of interest. Frequently the school calendar interferes with family obligations and labor needs. Although the school calendar is officially modified to accommodate the cotton harvest (a peak labor period), it must likewise accommodate rice planting, which again demands the labor of all family members. Also, local culture has defined certain tasks, especially bringing in turtles and gathering lizard's eggs, as children's work. Although the rainy season reduces the demand for child labor, poor roads make it difficult for both teacher and pupils to reach school during that season. Nevertheless, the people of Cereté highly value education, despite its poor quality in their community. For the peasant families, however, physical survival is of more immediate concern than education.

In rural areas like Contadero and Cereté, the teacher holds a position of prestige; but in the teaching community generally, rural teachers occupy the lowest rung on the ladder. Besides the amounts spent in 1965 by the Ministry of National Education and by the Departments to support rural education, the Institute of Agrarian Reform (INCORA) spent 4,090,577 pesos for elementary education and for courses to improve the use of natural resources. Coffee- and tobacco-growing organizations have sponsored similar educational offerings.[26]

Nuclear Schools

Colombia's 21 nuclear schools (grades 3, 4, and 5) and their corresponding 160 satellite schools (grades 1 and 2) form clusters, with the former serving as an administrative and coordinating center for all teaching and extra school activities of the latter. The 21 clusters are each served by an agricultural expert, a health improver, a literacy instructor, and a shop teacher; and some of the 21 offer not only an academic program but also agriculture and home economics. Each cluster has its own farmland from which it may derive some additional income. A pupil who completes grade 5 of a nuclear school may go on to a secondary school.

Rural boarding schools (*internados*) serve a function similar to that of the nuclear-satellite combination. The boarding schools, the nuclears, and the satellites altogether in 1968 enrolled 14,000 children and 15,000 adults.[27]

The 1967 Emergency Plan

Leaders of the Colombian Federation of Educators (FECODE) [28] claim credit for initiating the First National Education Conference in Bogotá

[24] For more information on the Church's radio schools, see chapter 11, section on *Acción Cultural Popular*.
[25] Havens. op. cit. pp. 7–10.
[26] For contributions in money and service to rural education, see the tabulation in chapter 4 under section on Finance. For more information on INCORA's activities, see chapter 8, section on Agricultural Education.
[27] Interview with Florángela Hernández S., Ministry of National Education Staff member. February 1968.
[28] See chapter 10, section on Employment Conditions.

at the end of 1966. Among the many reforms which this conference called for was an emergency plan to bring about immediate educational improvement, particularly for the masses.[29] The Ministry of National Education estimated early in 1967 that Colombia had a shortage of 700,000 elementary education places (*cupos*). Decree 150 of January 31, 1967 set out to correct this deficiency as rapidly as possible.

The Plan: Background and Main Features

Decree 150 resulted in the Emergency Plan with three main features. As background for these features the Plan invoked the following three ideas:

1. The Colombian Constitution obliges the State to provide free elementary education for all school-age children.
2. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights of the United Nations recognizes the right of all persons to education without regard to race, sex, or economic or social condition.
3. The Government's duty is to bring about permanent improvement in the quality of education and to increase the educational system's contribution to the national welfare.

Going into effect early in 1967, the Plan consisted of the following three main features:

1. An Intensive Functioning school (*Escuela de Funcionamiento Intensivo*).
2. A unitary (one-teacher) 5-year school.
3. A Double-Session School.

The Intensive Functioning School

One of the immediate results of the Plan was to reduce weekly pupil hours and reassign teacher hours according to the following formula:

Grade	*Previous number of hours*	*New number of hours*	*Hours freed for reassignment of teacher time*
1	33	22	11
2	33	26	7
3	33	28	5
4	33	31	2
5	33	31	2

The hours freed each day for reassignment of teacher time were to enable the teachers to take on extra classes, but not extra hours, so that they could reach more pupils. By 1970, however, the Intensive Functioning Schools were in only limited use.

The Unitary 5-Year School

Rural schools in areas of low population density rarely offered more than a year or two of study, and hence Decree 150 called for converting all these schools to the standard 5-year curriculum. The Decree also called for local secretariats of education to initiate special courses to train teach-

[29] *Renovación Educativa*, August 6, 1967.

ers for the new curriculum. Only certified teachers were to be eligible to teach in unitary schools and only schools with fewer than 20 pupils were to be so classified.

The Double-Session School

The Plan's schedule for the Double-Session School was to have classes meet in two sessions from early morning to late afternoon, Monday through Saturday. The Plan was also authorized by Decree 150 to institute coeducational classes in elementary schools having fewer than 30 pupils.

Criticisms and Suggestions

Many persons and many groups have offered suggestions for improving Colombia's elementary education. During the early 1960's a study mission drew attention to the then reduced, but still continuing, discrimination in favor of urban children over rural children. The mission criticized the curriculum for excessive subject-matter content, which does not allow time for individual or group work and which ignores the special needs of young children. Subject matter is often encyclopedic, filled with abstract concepts unrelated to the child's experience and selected with eventual university study in mind. Teaching often lacks unity and ignores the fact that for the vast majority of Colombian children their first few years of schooling provide all the formal body of intellectual experience they will ever acquire.

The study mission lamented the passive teaching methods in which the teacher, knowing no other method, talks and the child listens or pretends to listen. It complained of the lack of textbooks and the almost complete absence of instructional materials. It deplored the rote teaching aimed at evoking recitation without comprehension and the lack of any group work which would teach cooperative attitudes.[30] Roman Catholic spokesmen, too, have complained that the elementary curriculum was too restricted and too inflexible and that it was inclined to discourage innovation.

Local Control and Coeducation

Many Colombian educational leaders believe that greater local control of education would increase local tax support for schools, particularly if a national incentive system were used. They are encouraging coeducation as a means of reducing costs in smaller schools. Although the Church has been opposed to coeducation in public schools, it has accepted the practice in small communities where the cost of separate classes would be prohibitive.

Use of the Personal Identity Certificate

The lack of detailed and accurate information about the extent of the child population in Colombia makes it extremely difficult for the Government to plan educational programs. One suggestion for providing the Government with sufficient information to plan these programs is that educational details be incorporated into the personal identity certificate which all Colombians are required to have. If this were done it would

[30] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Memoria del Ministro de Educación Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1964. I:18.

simplify the enforcement of compulsory education laws in communities where facilities are adequate but where children do not attend school. Such a requirement would also provide a legal record of each child's educational attainments, and would provide the Departments (States) with information concerning the exact location of schools, the number of teachers in service, and the number and sex of the enrolled pupils.

The Problem of Poorly Prepared Teachers

Colombia has a problem of poorly prepared teachers. Although widely available, inservice training for them has not proved an efficient way of improving their skills. The Council of Secretaries of Education has decided to employ as new teachers only those who have completed at least the first cycle (4 out of 6 years) of secondary education. Despite this attempt to raise teacher qualifications, the low level of most elementary teachers' preparation will continue for many years.

Since the inadequate basic education of elementary teachers fails to stimulate them with much, if any, imagination, some experts advocate that detailed practical textbooks be prepared to spell out, word for word, the practical facts and applications of those facts which children need to cope with their immediate environment. Since memorization is already so typical of the learning situation in Colombian elementary schools, practical, self-explanatory textbooks which could stimulate children to think reflectively might be prepared for them to memorize under the teacher's personal guidance.

Some experts also advocate replacing small and ineffective rural schools with partly self-sustaining boarding institutions.

The Cause of the Problems

It is clear that solving Colombia's problems in elementary education would amount to a socioeconomic revolution. Most of these problems arise not from the school itself but from the society it serves. The primitive living conditions and the isolation of some areas where schooling is least effective make it especially difficult to obtain able teachers and to provide financial support for even a minimum quality of rural education. In the strictest sense, the problems do not result from unique shortcomings in Colombian education. Rather, they are the manifestations of economic, geographic, political, and social conditions which have influenced the course of Colombia's history for generations.

7. Secondary Education

Secondary schools are those institutions which require 5 years of elementary instruction as a prerequisite to admission. Two distinct terms are used for secondary education. The most common term—*educacíon media* (middle education)—refers to all postelementary education. The other term—*educación secundaria* (secondary education)—refers to the formal, academic (*bachillerato*) program. In this report, however, the usual English term "secondary education" will be used to refer to all postelementary instruction.

Various terms are also used for those institutions which offer secondary education. The most common term for a secondary school, public or private, is *colegio*. Many *colegios*, however, also offer some elementary education preparatory to their more advanced work. Some also provide boarding facilities. (The term "*colegio*" may be used for a prestigious elementary school also.[1]) A *liceo* or *instituto* is usually a private secondary school, although it may be a public one.

Objectives

The traditional purpose of secondary education is to prepare students for the university. Officially, its objectives include: [2]

1. Continuing, amplifying, and intensifying basic educational fundamentals provided by elementary schools.
2. Meeting the needs of the adolescent student in his intellectual, moral, religious, social, and esthetic education.
3. Guiding the student in his total development and contributing to the development of his personality.
4. Forming good habits of conduct such as responsibility, initiative, honesty, sincerity, satisfaction in one's work, ability to deal with difficulties, dependability, punctuality, good manners, tolerance, and a sense of acceptance and respect for the law and unusual ideas.
5. Teaching the student to study.
6. Stimulating in the student the idea of individual and collective discovery and the wise use of free time.
7. Enabling the student to work effectively with others, thereby achieving a sense of individual, family, civic, and social responsibility.
8. Helping the student develop his potentialities so that he may enjoy a full life.

[1] An *escuela* is the usual term for an elementary school without tuition charge or with extremely low tuition, even though it attempts to offer a program virtually identical with that of a *colegio*.
[2] Decree 45, January 11, 1962. pp. 2–3.

9. Inculcating in the student a spirit of patriotism and a willingness to serve his nation.
10. Preparing the student to live in a society which is constantly evolving in response to cultural, social, scientific, and technological change.
11. Preparing the student to continue his education by undertaking studies in higher education.

Structure and Organization

Except when recently placed under regional control, the National Government's secondary schools are administered by its Division of National Plants. Secondary education has been divided into (1) general secondary or *bachillerato*, (2) vocational or technical secondary, and (3) normal education. Chart 3 shows the structure of the Colombian educational system.

Public secondary schools must operate a minimum of 37 weeks per year, including the time set aside for examinations. At least 1,140 hours must be devoted to classes, laboratories, and "cocurricular" activities. No courses may be offered for less than one semester (*quimestre*). Private secondary schools may adopt different schedules, provided that the number of weeks and hours taught annually are not less than above.[3]

Cycles

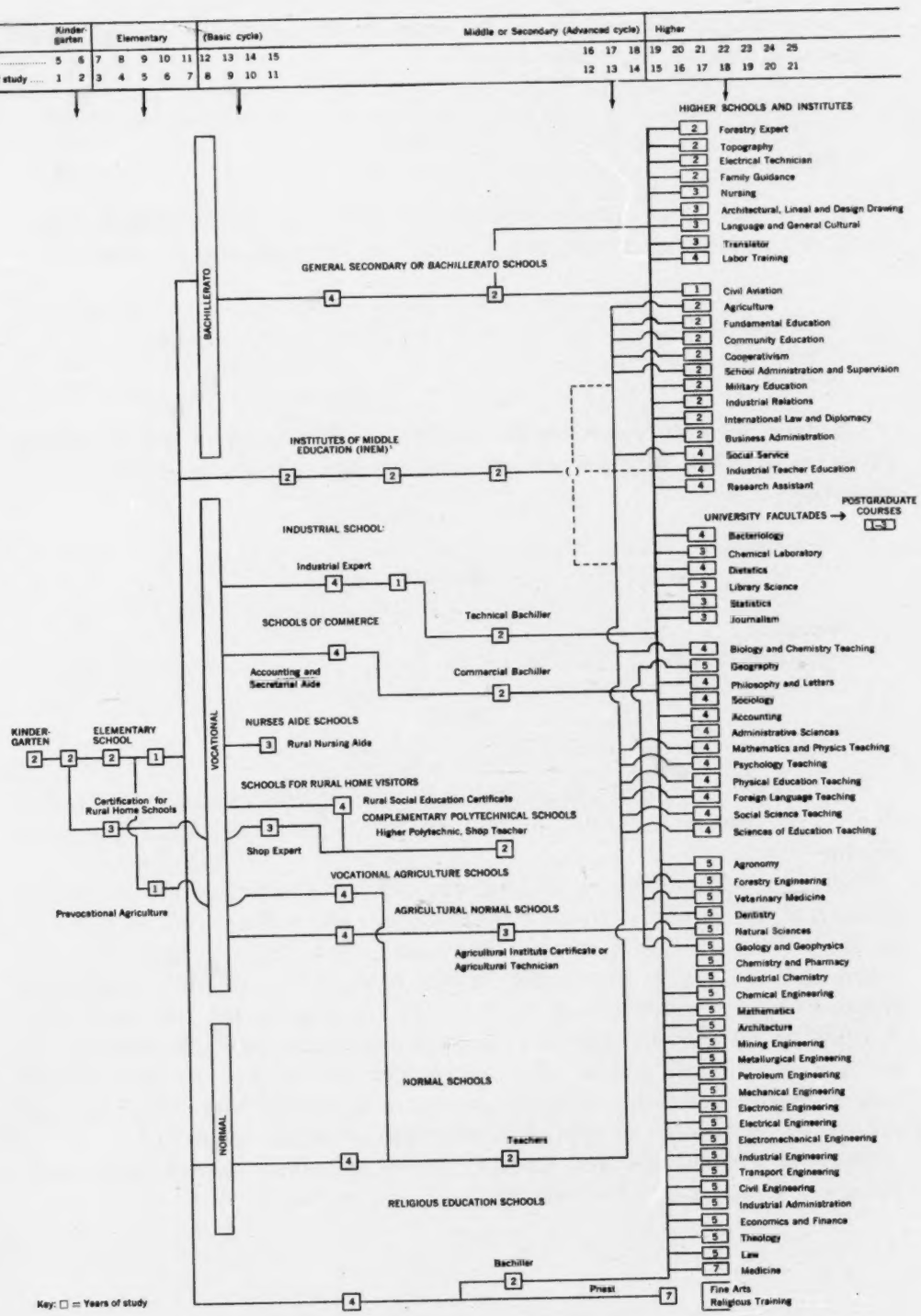
Since 1962, secondary education has been divided into two cycles: the basic cycle (*ciclo basico*) of 4 years, which offers general education, and the advanced or vocational cycle (*ciclo profesional*) of 2 years, which offers specialization in a variety of areas. So far the division into cycles has been initiated in all general secondary and normal schools, but only in some specialized secondary schools.[4]

One of the functions of the basic cycle is to discourage premature specialization by allowing a student to decide upon his future career after he has reached greater maturity. In addition, because it is common to all secondary schools, it increases the flexibility with which a student may transfer from one secondary school to another.

Fragmentation of Secondary Programs

A distinctive feature of Colombian secondary education is its fragmentation. There are, for example, public schools belonging to the National Government, to the Departmental governments, and to the municipal governments; among private schools there are nonprofit schools, nonprofit cooperative schools, schools run for private profit, church-sponsored schools, and a number of schools conducted in various foreign languages. Also, within the categories just listed, secondary schools differ in purpose and function because they seek to attract a different kind of clientele. For instance, there are university preparatory schools, business schools, normal schools, schools of agriculture, and schools of art. In addition, most of these schools are further subdivided by sex. Academic secondary schools, commercial schools, and normal schools, in that order, are the most numerous.

[3] Ibid. p. 6.
[4] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. 1:33. (Mimeograph) In industrial and agricultural schools, the 2d cycle has been increased to 3 years.



*Articulation of the new INEM schools with higher education institutions is not yet developed in detail and not yet functioning.
SOURCE OF DATA: Ministry of National Education, Office of Planning, Coordination, and Evaluation. 1967.

Chart 3. Structure of the Colombian Educational System: 1967

The following figures show the number of secondary schools under public and private control in 1964: [5]

Total	*2,523*
Public	925
Private	1,598

In the same year, almost half of all secondary schools offered 4 to 6 years of the *bachillerato* program. Division by program was as follows: [6]

Total	*2,523*
Bachillerato	1,295
Vocational	880
Normal	348

Of those secondary schools that offered 4 to 6 years of the *bachillerato* program in 1964, over two-thirds were private schools, as shown by the following:[7]

Grand total	*1,295*
Public	
Total	*422*
National	87
Departmental	321
Municipal	14
Private	
Total	*873*

Of the 880 vocational institutions, 445 were commercial schools, and of these 383 were private. Of the 348 normal schools, less than half were private.[8]

More than 80 percent of all Colombian *colegios* and *liceos* are located in Departmental capitals. Unless a rural student has sufficient funds to travel to these cities and to pay for room and board, tuition, uniforms, and supplies, it is virtually impossible for him (except in a few rare scholarship cases) to enjoy secondary education and to prepare for the university. A study of 140 private *colegios* in Bogotá found that students received an average of 4.7 full public scholarships per institution. In 412 private *colegios* in the same city, 6.9 full private scholarships were awarded per institution. A number of partial scholarships were also granted.[9]

Some of Colombia's well known public secondary schools with their 1968 enrollment are as follows: [10]

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[5] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *La Educación en Colombia, 1963–1964.* Bogotá: November 1966. p. 11. (Mimeograph)
[6] Ibid.
[7] Ibid.
[8] Instituto Interamericano de Estadística, *Ameréca en Cifras, 1965: Situación Cultural: Educación y ótros Aspectos Culturales.* Washington: Pan American Union, 1967. p. 81.
[9] Rebeca Bernal Zapata. *Algunos Aspectos de la Educación en el Distrito Especial.* Bogotá: Javeriana University, 1967. p. 15–16. (A doctoral thesis).
[10] Letter from Cultural Affairs Officer, U.S. Information Service, Bogotá. September 10, 1968.

Name	*City*	*Estimated enrollment*
Colegio Deogracias Cardona	Pereira	300
Colegio Mayor de Bolívar	Cartagena	300
Colegio Santa Librada	Cali	300
Externado Nacional Camilo Torres	Bogotá	2,000
Liceo de los Andes	Pereira	300
Liceo Antioqueño	Medellín	1,500
Liceo Celedón	Santa Marta	300
Liceo Nacional Antonia Santos	Bogotá	500
Liceo de Varones	Popayán	300

Buildings and Facilities

Many of the older secondary school buildings have been constructed with a cement patio surrounded by a building of several stories. The patio, usually the only recreational area, has just enough space for one or two basketball courts. Because secondary schools are most numerous in congested urban areas, there is seldom room to enlarge these facilities. With the exception of some new and quite impressive modern schools, the majority of Colombia's secondary school buildings are in poor condition and lack proper equipment.

Of the more than 2,200 secondary schools in 1962, few had laboratories or complete vocational-education facilities. Of 238 postelementary public schools of all types, including secondary and normal schools, only 99 possessed even a small library.[11] Textbooks themselves were scarce in the poorer areas. Faculty sponsors (for clubs, extracurricular activities, and sports), student councils, and other student activities are still not found in most schools.

Enrollments

By Control

Although enrollment in private schools exceeds that in public schools, the percent in public schools has grown considerably since 1960: [12]

		Public		*Private*	
Year	*Total*	*Number*	*Percent*	*Number*	*Percent*
1950	86,595	37,503	43.3	49,092	56.7
1955	134,655	55,947	41.6	78,708	58.4
1960	253,768	100,261	39.5	153,507	60.5
1962	312,391	122,883	39.3	189,508	60.7
1965	404,802	186,335	46.0	218,467	54.0
1968	586,704	272,794	46.5	313,910	53.5

The 1968 enrollment was four times as large as the 1955 enrollment.

[11] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Memorial del Ministro de Educación Nacional*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1964. I:75.

[12] Data include all branches of secondary education, including those which do not have two complete cycles.
Data for 1950—65 from: Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. I:42.
Data for 1968 from: Octavio Arízmendi Posada. *La Transformación Educativa Nacional*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1969. I:111–13.

By Program

In 1968, over two-thirds of all secondary students were enrolled in the *bachillerato* program; and almost one-half of all secondary students were women. Of those enrolled in the vocational program, over half were in the commercial field. Enrollments in the various programs and fields were as follows: [13]

Field of Study	*Total*	*Men*	*Women*
Grand total	*586,704*	*296,529*	*290,175*
Bachillerato			
Total	*405,778*	*236,252*	*169,526*
Vocational			
Total	*126,728*	*47,811*	*78,917*
Agricultural	7,930	6,662	1,268
Artistic	8,681	2,671	6,010
Commercial	69,233	14,367	54,866
General vocational	11,504	1,294	10,210
Industrial	27,808	22,817	4,991
Nursing	1,572	.....	1,572
Normal			
Total	*54,198*	*12,466*	*41,732*

By School

Secondary schools are generally very small. One study in the 1960's showed that the average public school offering the *bachillerato* enrolled 212 students, with a student-teacher ratio of 15 to 1. The average private school offering the same program enrolled 142 students, with a student-teacher ratio of 11 to 1. Schools offering a commercial program had an average enrollment of 100 and a student-teacher ratio of 11 to 1. The average size of all secondary schools was 130.[14] Of course, these enrollments usually declined during the school year as students dropped out.

The National Institutes of Middle Education (INEM),[15] which began functioning in 1970, have two to three thousand students each and larger student-teacher ratios. Typically, *colegios* have large introductory classes and extremely small advanced classes.

In general, it appears that most of those at present who manage to complete the 5-year program of elementary education clearly intend to begin secondary education. Similarly, secondary graduates usually intend to continue their education. This is illustrated by the fact that in 1964, 1st-year university enrollment was 84 percent of the preceding year's secondary graduates.

Curriculum

Students are required to attend up to 38 hours of class per week.[16] Decree 45 of 1962 prepared a basic curriculum, shown in table 5, for all branches of secondary education, both public and private. Schools offering the *bachillerato* program use 7 to 11 hours for additional course work called

[13] Departamento, Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *Censo de Establecimientos Educativos: 1968*. Bogotá: April 1970. p. 1.
[14] Glenn R. Varner. *Educación Secundaria en Colombia*. Bogotá: ca. 1965. p. 0.
[15] Described later in this chapter.
[16] This amounts to nine or more subjects each year. A reduction of hours spent in class and an increase in hours of homework and self-study would not only reduce the need for so many teachers but might stimulate a spirit of greater individual responsibility.

"intensifications," although this time is generally intended for extracurricular or supplemental activities. Normal and vocational schools use these hours for a specialized training program.

Table 5.—*Number of hours in each subject area of secondary education, by grade and year: 1962 decree*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject area	Grade: / Year:	6 I	7 II	8 III	9 IV	10 V	11 VI
Total		*38*	*38*	*38*	*38*	*38*	*38*
Chemistry		.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4
Esthetic education[1]		2	2	2	2	.....	.....
Foreign languages[2]		3	3	3	3	5	5
Industrial arts and domestic studies		2	2	2	2	.....	.....
Mathematics		5	4	5	7	3	2
Natural sciences		2	2	2	4	.....	.....
Philosophy		.....	.....	.....	.....	3	4
Physical education		2	2	2	2	2	2
Physics		.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4
Psychology		.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....
Religious and moral education		3	3	3	2	2	1
Social studies[3]		5	7	7	4	.....	2
Spanish and literature		5	5	5	3–5	3	3
Supplemental activities and/or more intensified academic or technical studies		9	8	7	7	10	11

[1] Includes in all years choir, drawing, and [illegible]ic appreciation; and in the 1st and 2d years, penmanship also.

[2] In the 1st through the 4th years, English is taught; in the 5th and 6th years, a student may choose either English or French.

[3] Includes: *in the 1st year*—physical and human geography applied to Colombia, general and American prehistory applied to Colombia, and civics and deportment; *in the 2d year*—geography of the old continent, oceania, and polar regions, and ancient and medieval history; *in the 3d year*—geography of America and history of the Americas; *in the 4th year*—geography and history of Colombia; and *in the 6th year*—Colombian institutions and world affairs.

SOURCE OF DATA: Decree 45 of 1962.

Extracurricular Activities

In extracurricular or supplemental activities (*actividades coprogramáticas*), student initiative is encouraged to promote well-rounded personal development. These activities include: clubs, collective labor, directed study, field trips, library, literary groups, theater, and vocational guidance. Industrial arts and home economics (*educación para el hogar*) in the basic cycle include elective activities which, while they impart knowledge, also develop vocational skills such as airplane modeling, bookbinding, carpentry, cooking, farming, first aid, mechanics, photography, and typing. Schools are expected to choose from those areas most related to their philosophy and facilities. Students are to choose one or two electives from those offered.

The Advanced Cycle

Required for university admission, the advanced cycle is designed to provide general education and increase opportunities for securing remunerative and socially useful employment. It includes a core of required subjects and optional subjects which are to be closely related to the required subjects, to the student's aptitudes, or to vocational or career interests. In 1968, the hours for physical education were increased from 2 to 3 hours

per week, the added hour to be taken from time designated for other supplementary activities.[17]

The Bachillerato Program

The basic program of Colombian secondary education is the *bachillerato*. This is the branch of education known as *secundaria*, rather than the more inclusive term *media*. It stresses academic learning and preparation for entry into the university. In 1968, 69.2 percent of all secondary students were taking the *bachillerato*, and 56.2 percent of these were in private schools.

A central aim of the *bachillerato* program is to provide the student with a broad cultural background. For many years, the possession of the *bachillerato* degree—which requires 6 years of academic secondary education—implied that the bearer (termed a *bachiller*) had studied at one of the exclusive privately-owned *colegios*. The emergence of Government secondary schools in the 1950's diminished the prestige of the *bachillerato* program by making it more accessible to the middle and lower classes, although it is still regarded as the hallmark of the truly educated youth. The long-standing contempt of the upper and middle classes for manual labor continues to make vocational secondary education unattractive.

To parents, the *bachiller* is a special person who has earned the right to be respected. He has become one of those cultured and honorable people worthy of particular consideration. The social pages of newspapers reinforce this image of a privileged person, conscious of his competence and his rights, who will be a member of select circles. Critics of this attitude suggest that the *bachiller* is a dilettante—excessively literary and conservative in his opinions, as a result of a curriculum which stresses traditional cultural content and memorization of encyclopedic knowledge.[18]

Because of the prestige conferred by the *bachillerato*, the subjects studied under that program form the basis of most programs in agricultural, commercial, industrial, and normal education.

The Commercial Program

Although the official commercial program lasts 6 years, many schools do not follow it but grant their own diplomas and certificates instead in less than 6 years. Many commercial students get a job after only 1, 2, or 3 years of study. The vocational opportunities available to commercial students after only a few years of study are much greater than those available to *bachillerato* students after an equal number of years.

The Industrial Program

The secondary industrial program includes such specialities as cabinet work, electricity, foundry, mechanics, and motors. Decree 718 of 1966 reorganized industrial education into a 4-year basic cycle followed by a 3-year technical cycle. An institution which devotes itself exclusively to the advanced cycle may call itself an industrial technical institute. How-

[17] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Programa de Educación Física para Enseñanza Media.* Bogotá: 1967. preface. (Mimeograph)

[18] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia.* Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1964. p. 287. (Mimeograph)
The cultural values of students are fully documented in: Andre Benoit. *El Bachillerato Colombiano: Aspectos de su Función Ideológica.* Bogotá: FERES-Tercer Mundo, 1968.

ever, if a student wishes to enter a university after leaving such an institution, he must have a *bachillerato* degree, which means that in his 5th and 6th years he must take the *bachillerato* program and specialize only in his 7th year.

The Normal Program

The advanced cycle of the secondary normal program prepares students to teach in elementary schools. Decree 1955 of 1963 placed both urban and rural normal education on a 6-year basis throughout the country. The 2 years of the advanced cycle have been divided into four 5-month terms, with promotion in each term. Dropout rates in the normal school program have been lower than in other secondary programs, probably because the diploma proves to have a definite cash value for its owner. Preparing elementary teachers is not included among the functions of the projected large, comprehensive secondary schools, principally because Colombia already has a great many normal schools.

Instruction

Teacher Schedules

The full-time secondary teacher spends an average of 4 hours per day or about 24 hours per week in class (in additon to the time spent in study hall, library, and other activities).[19] A great many secondary teachers, however, serve part time in several schools, thereby teaching more than 24 hours per week. Known as "taxi professors," they teach one or two classes at one school, taxi to the next school, teach another class or two, and so move on until their school day ends, often at night. The more classes they teach, the more they earn. The obvious defect of such a schedule is that it allows virtually no time to prepare for classes.

Teacher Preparation

Approximately one in six secondary teachers has completed university study. Although some teachers may have had special training to become secondary teachers, most of those in charge of natural mathematics, natural sciences, or literature, history, or philosophy did not, but teach only because they started but did not complete training in engineering, medicine or pharmacy, or law, respectively.[20]

Teaching Methods

Most teachers use the lecture method; and their students diligently take notes. The classroom attitude of most teachers is one of firm confidence and authority, and fortunately most possess an unusual facility for rendering apt, well-phrased definitions in a clear, convincing manner. Grades are based mainly on written examinations. Teachers consider selecting the most competent students an important part of their role.

Critics of Colombian education frequently lament what they regard as excessive emphasis on memory work; others contend that mastery of a

[19] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto. . . .* op. cit. I:88.
[20] Augustín Nieto Caballero. *Una Escuela.* Bogotá: Antares-Tercer Mundo, 1966. p. 74.

certain amount of factual information on a topic is necessary for fruitful discussion of it.

Critics also claim that Colombian teachers tend to abuse the principle of authority by making frequent reference to famous authors and sources to support an argument and do not encourage students to discuss a topic in their own terms. Student wall newspapers,[21] like much of the Colombian press, have been described as tending to set forth problems as opportunities for a display of formal logic in the spirit of an intellectual game, rather than as a sincere quest to reach a better understanding of the issue.[22]

Grades and Examinations

Grading System

Decree 1598 of 1934 established the following grading system for all public schools:

5 very good (*muy bien*)
4 good (*bien*)
3 satisfactory (*regular*)
2 poor (*mal*)
1 very poor (*muy mal*)
0 terrible (*pésimo*) (no longer used)

Final Examinations

For a student to take a final examination in any subject, he must have attended at least 90 percent of the required classes and have received at least five grades—one for each month or nine for two semesters. These monthly grades may be based upon tests given during regular class periods or upon recitations, projects, notebooks, or the like. The average of the monthly grades counts for 60 percent of the final grade, and the final examination for 40 percent. If a student's monthly grade average is less than "2," he is ineligible to take the final examination in a subject, and his monthly grade average then becomes his final grade.[23]

Until recently, a typical final examination (which is usually read by two professors) consisted of essay questions, all of which called for a memorized reply based mostly on the teacher's lectures or on assigned reading. Many secondary school directors have been so dissatisfied with the quality of the essay questions, however, that there has been a trend towards using objective test questions—which, unfortunately, teachers lack skill in designing.

Class participation, attitude, and other similar acceptable bases for grading are usually minimized by teachers in order to avoid criticism of their evaluation methods. Such precautions are especially important because secondary students show a relatively high failure rate.

Failure of Examinations

In 1964, 16.8 percent of men secondary students and 11.7 percent of women students failed their year, although only 6.1 percent of the group

[21] School bulletin boards which serve the function of a school newspaper in that their content is largely student-selected.
[22] Bernal Escobar, op. cit. p. 267.
[23] Decree 45 of 1962.

were repeaters.[24] National University indicated that 30.6 percent of that fairly select group of students had failed one or two subjects in secondary school, and 25.3 percent had failed from three to five subjects. Only 36.3 percent had not failed a single secondary subject. As many as 18.5 percent had repeated 1 year of secondary work.[25] Teachers on all levels are inclined to regard the examination as an obstacle which the student must overcome. If he fails, it is because he cannot cope with the reasonable but exacting demands of academic life.

Credit by Examination

A system of free study went into effect in 1965, in which a student over 16 years of age may enroll in the first cycle of secondary education. He then becomes eligible to consult with teachers and take examinations without attending classes, thus receiving approval (credit) for his course.[26]

Records

All schools are required to have individual record books (*libretas escolares*), in which are recorded for parents' information each student's grades, attendance, behavior, and effort. A student who transfers from one secondary school to another at the end of the first grading term must have his previous term grades accepted without question by his school.[27]

Criticisms

Irrelevance to National Development

The academic secondary school program is often criticized for alleged irrelevance to national economic and social development. Some information on this topic was gathered by a study of the ideas and values of 321 6th year *bachillerato* students in 12 Colombian secondary schools located in four different Departments. Six of the institutions studied were private Catholic *colegios*, three were public schools, and three were Protestant.[28] The intellectual currents among these students suggest the kind of ideas conveyed by the secondary school *milieu*.

Generally the students expressed their ideas in the vocabulary of traditional scholastic philosophy, of the Bible, of some French authors (especially Malraux, Camus, and Sartre in one public school), and of opposition political parties. They used the direct and spontaneous vocabulary of young rebels, not the vocabulary of contemporary Christian theology.[29]

The ideas and values expressed by the students might be judged for their relevance to national development by the degree of secularization they reveal, since secularization generally is identified with the values commonly found in economically developed, complex societies. The study showed that the greatest secularization occurred in public schools, and the least in Catholic schools in small cities. For instance, students in public schools were more likely than students in Protestant or Catholic institutions to

[24] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *La Educación en Colombia, 1963–1964.* op. cit. p. 14. *and* DANE. "La Educación en Colombia," *Boletin Mensual de Estadistica.* 219: 130–31, June 1969.
[25] Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Censo de Estudiantes, Primer Semestre, 1967.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeacion de la Rectoría, 1967. I:29.
[26] Gómez Valderrama. op. cit. I:VI.
[27] Decree 45 of 1962.
[28] Andre Benoit et al. "Educa la Educación Colombiana?" in *La Hora.* No. 53, pp. 4 and 7, September 1967.
[29] Ibid. p. 17.

accept the statement that man should seek to change society. Catholic students were more likely than the others to accept socioeconomic inequalities as reflecting the will of God. In Catholic *colegios* in smaller communities, this view was accepted by at least 60 percent of those interviewed. Catholic students had the greatest inclination to accept the statement that the poor have the kind of luck they deserve. Over half of all the secondary students, Catholic and non-Catholic, agreed that social discontent arises from a failure to accept God's will. This view was even more common among students in the smaller cities. Over 90 percent of all students, however, accepted the notion that secondary education ought to be accessible to all social classes.

Only 6 percent saw any clear relationship between religion and technological studies, and only 4 percent saw technical careers as a means of living and practicing Christianity. However, only 25 percent agreed with the statement that philosophical studies were more suitable for Christians than technical studies. Similarly, fewer than 10 percent saw any positive relationship between technical progress and spiritual values, and 25 percent felt that these two ideas were almost completely unrelated.

As far as the effect of religion on social change is concerned, only 10 percent felt that their religious values obliged them to work to bring about change; however, 21 percent agreed that God favors greater equality for mankind. Only about 25 percent felt that the causes of social discontent are rooted in social injustice and the inefficiency of social organization; nearly as many insisted upon the need to change these traditions. Only about 20 percent agreed with the notion that "the Lord helps those who help themselves." Nearly an equal number believed that the best solution is to accept things as they are. Fewer than 2 percent, however, believed than *any* change in the status quo would be dangerous.

In general, the students in Protestant secondary schools were most inclined to favor religious values which the researchers judged to be compatible with the tasks of constructing a new society. Among the students as a whole, a conservative outlook was common. For example, almost half thought that the poor get only what they deserve; and more than half the students in Catholic *colegios* recommended resignation, or acceptance of the will of God, as appropriate behavior.[30] Clearly, most of these schools did not appear to be building the values needed in a developing nation.

Wastage due to Dropping Out

Many Colombians do not doubt that secondary education, on the whole, is a positive experience. Their principal concern is more efficient utilization of its resources. One aspect of this problem is wastage due to dropping out, which can be seen in the following enrollment data for 1968: [31]

Boys are more likely than girls to complete secondary education; and private school students are more likely to complete their program than public school students (probably partly because they represent a more affluent social class).

[30] Ibid. pp. 4, 6–7, 10–11, 13–14, and 29.
[31] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *Censo de Establecimientos Educativos: 1968.* op. cit. pp. 68–71.

Grade	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Public							
Boys	42,243	24,618	18,119	13,183	10,715	7,266	204
Girls	24,296	14,899	9,556	6,565	3,805	2,011	74
Private							
Boys	36,703	26,503	20,083	15,029	11,829	9,401	356
Girls	35,381	24,671	18,529	14,076	8,789	6,727	147

Insufficient Vocational Preparation

Secondary education has been criticized for its lack of vocational preparation. A national teacher's union favors a basic secondary education that will prepare students not going on to university study for successful employment in one of various practical occupations. The union complains that the present *bachiller* receives a great deal of miscellaneous knowledge which does little to prepare him for any specific job.[32]

Accentuation of Class Structure

Another difficulty concerns class structure. A Ministry of National Education report to Congress criticized secondary education for its role as an accentuator of social differences rather than as an instrument for vertical mobility. While poor families need their children's labor for income and cannot provide the cost of sending them to school, the well-to-do can afford to support their children longer in school and thus the children are able to retain their higher social status. The few secondary schools to which the poor have the easiest access, such as agricultural, industrial, and other vocational schools, tend to function in such a way as to discourage upward mobility. For most students, the principal reason for finishing secondary or higher studies is the social status conferred by the resultant diploma or degree.[33]

Overregulation

Critics from the Roman Catholic Church found that the 1962 curricular reform continued to overregulate secondary education. They expressed disappointment that the prescribed curriculum no longer included philosophy nor required Latin in the basic cycle. There was additional disappointment because accounting was omitted from the 3d year, since it was of practical value to those who dropped out of school early. The general theme of the Church's criticism was that secondary schools should be allowed to determine their own curriculums.[34]

Social differences are emphasized also by the many private secondary schools which thrive on their ability to cater to the needs of a particular elite sector of society. For example, schools conducted in a foreign language are highly esteemed. They are also usually expensive. On the other hand, when a North American-inspired school sought to mix students of different social backgrounds, the idea met with very limited success.

[32] *Renovación Educativa.* September 1967, p. 13.
[33] Daniel Arango. *Informe del Ministro de Educación al Congreso Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1966. pp. 45 and 70.
[34] Alfonso Uribe Misas. *La Liberatad de Esteñanza en Colombia.* Medellín: Editorial Bedout, 1962. pp. 536–38.

Before the reform of elementary education (which went into effect in 1963) designated the rural elementary school as a 5-year institution, rural students (most of whom were very poor) were effectively excluded from secondary education by the shorter rural elementary program which did not give sufficient education to prepare its students to enter secondary schools. Now that the institutional barrier to secondary education is being removed, the pressure of lower social classes for access to secondary education is being greatly increased. Church spokesmen have urged that a subsidy be given to parents of poorer children so that these children may attend the private or public secondary school or university of their choice. Assistance would be on a graduated scale in inverse proportion to the parents' ability to pay. (The present apportionment of aid to Departmental secondary schools is frequently criticized because it is granted on the basis of politics rather than necessity.)

Reforms

Basic-Cycle Uniformity

A great many secondary reforms have been proposed. One of the more important to be put into effect was Decree 45 of 1962, whose main purpose is to guarantee a general academic education to the increasing number of students who reach secondary schooling, even if they decide to discontinue their formal education and go to work after a few years of study. Decree 45 requires an increased uniformity during the first 4 years of secondary schooling, thus enabling students who wish to transfer from one kind of secondary institution to another to do so before their last 2 years of specialization. The provision will enable others who change their original plan to go on to the university or to shift to a middle-level technical specialization or a teacher-training program during their last 2 years of secondary study. The 1962 and subsequent reforms offer the student a wider range of options at a later stage of his secondary career than had previously been open to him.

Night Schools

Various reforms have paved the way for expanding secondary enrollment by aiding the student with limited resources to complete his secondary schooling. Decree 486 of 1962 authorized a program for the *bachillerato* which may be taken in no less than 7 years of night study. The following usual course requirements are deleted from the night school program: Esthetic education, industrial arts, home economics, physical education, and extracurricular activities. The rate of study is 630 class hours per year, as compared with 1,140 hours in the regular *bachillerato* program.

When space is available in night school, auditing is permitted. If an auditor attends class regularly, he may be granted a certificate of attendance, which the Ministry of National Education may accept as the basis of a validation examination. Five public institutions were operating night schools in various cities in the mid-1960's. The institutions were identified variously as *liceos*, *institutos*, *externados* (nonresidential), and *colegios*.[35]

[35] Gómez Valderrama. op. cit. IV:35.

Parallel Schools

Another special provision for secondary education is the parallel secondary school (*colegio paralelo*), authorized by Decree 455 of 1964. This school uses public school facilities and students pay only a modest tuition to cover the salaries of the additional teachers needed for the parallel school. There is a double session in the basic cycle only, with each session meeting for 6 hours daily.[36] Decree 155 of 1967 set low tuition rates based on parental income for students attending afternoon sessions of secondary schools, thus encouraging fuller use of existing facilities. In addition, children of teachers in public schools and the best two students in each course are exempted from tuition and snack charges. Similarly, reductions of 20 to 50 percent of the child's fees are granted to parents with more than one child in public schools.

Cooperative Schools

One of the first cooperative secondary schools was founded in Ciudad Kennedy, a new working-class suburb of Bogotá. Authorized by Decree 455 of 1964, the law seeks to encourage community groups to function as cooperative societies and to establish nonprofit schools which will extend through the basic cycle (4 years) of secondary education.

The 1967–68 prospectus for one such institution in Bogotá, Colegio Cooperativo ADEPAF (Parents Association Cooperative Secondary School), stressed that the economic purposes of the cooperative should not conflict with the educational function of the school. The school's main purpose is to provide inexpensive private secondary education to families of limited income. Entrance requires successful completion of the 5th year of elementary school plus an admission examination. Features include: (1) scholarships to students of limited means who possess outstanding ability and do good work, (2) honorable mention each month to recognize outstanding students, and (3) annual awards to students for personal effort, good fellowship, and a cooperative attitude, with the names of the recipients engraved on a special plaque. The school also provides accident insurance and barber, dental, and medical services. Charges for members of the cooperative range from 50 pesos to 75 pesos per month for the 4th year, plus a 10-peso monthly cooperative fee. Nonmember charges ranged from 70 to 100 pesos.[37]

Another such institution, the Cooperative Educational Unit FECODE,[38] has been operated by the Colombian Federation of Educators. This institution seeks to demonstrate that more modern, less rote-teaching techniques can be carried out in a pedagogically sound manner at low cost. Despite the gradual extension of this type of private secondary school, however, there are doubts that cooperative *colegios* will thrive because, in an effort to reduce costs to serve the economically marginal family, they will gradually reduce educational quality and thus will fail to attract sufficient families who will insist on more than minimum-quality instruction. Where quality has been stressed, such institutions have been quite successful.

[36] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Conferencia Dictada por el Señor Ministro de Educación en la Escuela Superior de Administración Pública el Dia 7 de Mayo de 1965.* Bogotá: Duplicaciones Mineducación, 1966. pp. 12–13 and 22–23.
[37] Pesos were worth about 6.2¢ U.S.
[38] For more information on FECODE, see chapter 10, section on Employment Conditions.

Other Reforms

Among other secondary school reforms are (1) trying to combine the resources of small secondary schools so their advanced courses can function with greater economy,[39] (2) initiating radio schools, described in chapter 11 under the section on Acción Cultural Popular (ACPO), and (3) using double sessions.

The National Institutes of Middle Education (INEM)

The Alliance for Progress stimulated the 1963 expansion of elementary rural education from 2 to 5 years, thus greatly increasing the demand for public secondary education. In response to this demand, 19 National Institutes of Middle Education (INEM) (comprehensive secondary schools) are planned for Departmental capitals. The first one was inaugurated in Ciudad Kennedy, Bogotá, in March 1970. President Lleras committed his government to developing these schools and the newly elected government seems likely to continue that policy. Plans call for 10 INEM schools to open in 1970 and for all of them to be in full operation by 1972. Half of the cost is to be financed by the International Bank of Reconstruction and Development and the remainder by the National Government. The larger student-teacher ratio expected in the proposed schools (about 24 to 1) should permit the use of much better equipped teachers and facilities at little increase in cost per pupil. The U.S. Government will provide assistance in training Colombian administrators and specialists for the new institutions.

Aims

The National Institutes of Middle Education are designed to place students from a wide variety of social backgrounds into a single coeducational institution. They emphasize helping a student explore his interests more fully so that he can choose from a larger number of curriculums, with the aid of a school guidance counselor. They also seek to provide a kind of education which makes it easier, both psychologically and vocationally, to enter directly into dignified practical employment. In addition, larger but still more moderate class size will reduce considerably both teacher and administrative costs per student.

Some specific situations which these new Institutes hope to improve are the following: [40]

1. Small public secondary schools (especially in big cities) have relatively high costs because their limited size does not permit efficient use of administrative and specialized personnel.
2. The small, single-curriculum school fails to give the student an opportunity to select programs related to his ability and interest. (This rigidity is regarded as a major factor in school dropout.)
3. Small schools attract select social groups which retard the country's development by taking a deprecatory attitude toward manual labor.
4. Secondary education is not an integrated whole; each school tends to emphasize its own specialty.

[39] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto* . . . op. cit. I:10.
[40] Ibid. II:1–4.

5. Many existing secondary programs do not relate to recent social and scientific changes in Colombian life.
6. There is now only limited transfer from one type of secondary school to another, due primarily to difference in curriculum. Since pupils are frequently too immature at the beginning of their secondary career to choose an appropriate professional program, transfer is frequently needed.

Curriculum

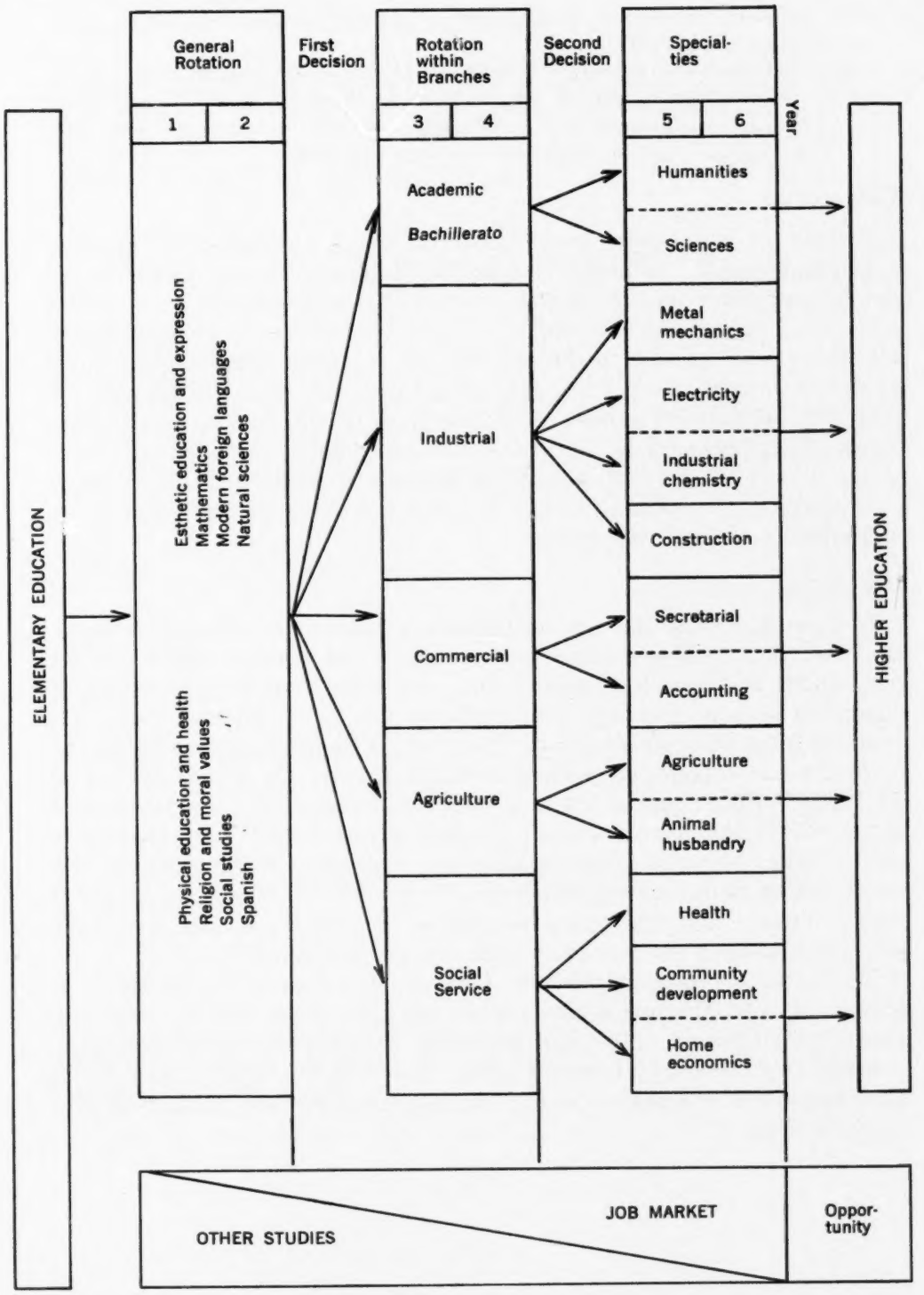
During the first 2 years in the Institutes, a student rotates through eight vocational subjects to acquire vocational information and guidance. In the 3d and 4th years, he rotates through the various subjects of a more specialized branch, chosen with counseling assistance and in accord with his ability and interest. In the 5th and 6th years, he concentrates on one of the more specialized fields. In addition, all students are required to take general cultural subjects including esthetic expression, foreign languages, mathematics, physical education, religion, science, Spanish, and social studies. Successful completion of these subjects qualifies them to continue university-level studies.[41] Chart 4 shows the vocational program organization of the Institutes.

Problems

It is expected that the new Institutes may encounter certain problems. Because vocational education lacks prestige and because plans call for placing the Institutes in relatively poor districts (where lack of secondary education is most glaring), they may be unable to attract many able students from other social classes. They would then fail to accomplish the desired social integration with other classes. Also, the small number of students who have graduated from vocational courses in the past make it seem unlikely that there will be enough students in the advanced cycle to offer a wide variety of vocational courses. And since in the past very few vocational students have gone beyond the 4th year of secondary school, it seems unlikely that entry into vocational education can be successfully postponed until the second cycle—the 5th and 6th years.[42]

Despite such problems, the new Institutes are expected to be ready to accept up to 80,000 new students in the next few years. Special university programs in Bogotá, Medellín, and Cali are preparing administrators, guidance counselors, and special subject teachers for INEM Institutes in their respective geographic areas. The new Institutes are getting off to a vigorous start.

[41] Arizmendi Posada. op. cit. pp. 78–81 and Decree 1962, 1969.
[42] Dieter K. Zschock. *Manpower Perspective in Colombia.* Princeton, N. J.: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1967. pp. 98–99.



SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media "INEM": Planes y Programas de Estudió, Lenguas Modernas, Primera Parte.* Bogotá: Instituto Colombiano de Construcciones Escolares (ICCE), November 1969. 18 pp. (Mimeograph)

Chart 4. Vocational Program Organization of the Institutes of Middle Education (INEM): 1969

8. Vocational Education

Vocational education is generally known to Colombians as *educación profesional* or *educación vocacional*. In Colombia, as in other Latin American countries, vocational education has developed slowly, primarily because of the low status generally accorded manual labor.

Vocational schooling is primarily directed toward producing the skilled workers and middle-level technicians required in national productive activity; it also, however, prepares some students to continue a technical specialization at the university level. For these reasons, it is found as part of regular academic secondary programs, within the Institutes of Middle Education, and in vocational schools. Another important part of the nation's vocational education effort is administered by the National Apprenticeship Service (SENA), discussed later in this chapter.

The National Educational Census of 1968 identified a wide range of vocational schools. In order of enrollment size, there were commercial (business or secretarial)—638; *normal*, for the training of elementary teachers—239; *general* (unspecified vocational)—178; *industrial*—176; *agricultural*—81; *nursing*—35; and scores of others. Most of these schools offer programs which qualify their students for further study on the university level. Many students, however, never complete the entire program.

Commercial Education

The most popular area of vocational study is commercial education. Private schools predominate, claiming 76.5 percent of the 1967–68 commercial school enrollment.[1] Approximately three-quarters of the total enrollment are women, with the vast majority of them in private institutions. Enrollments in this area increased 445 percent between 1950 and 1965.[2] The special appeal of commercial education is that it offers a shortcut to comparatively remunerative white-collar jobs.[3]

The basic legislation affecting commercial education is found in Decrees 45 and 2117 of 1962.

Commercial education may be taken at two levels. A student who finishes the first 4 years (the basic cycle) of the secondary commercial curriculum and who completes 1 year working in a business which attests

[1] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento*. Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media. September 1967. 1:44. (Mimeograph)
[2] Ibid.
[3] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia*. Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1964. p. 197. (Mimeograph)

to his efficiency will be granted the diploma of expert (*experto*). Similar certification is authorized in technical education.[4] The diploma of commercial science (*bachiller técnico comercial*) requires the 2 additional years of the second cycle of commercial study. Table 6 shows the number of hours in each subject of the academic and commercial curriculums.

Table 6.—*Number of hours in each subject of the secondary academic and commercial curriculums, by grade and year: 1967*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject	Grade: 6 Year: I		7 II		8 III		9 IV		10 V		11 VI	
	Ac.	Com.	Ac.	Com.	Ac.	Com.	Ac.	Com.	Ac.	Com.	Ac.	Com.
Total	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38	38
Academic and Commercial												
Chemistry	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4	4	4
Esthetic education	2	3	2	2	2	1	2	1	.....	.....	.....	.....
Foreign languages	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	5	5	5	5
Industrial arts and domestic studies	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	1	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mathematics	5	5	4	4	5	5	7	7	3	3	2	2
Natural sciences	2	2	2	2	2	2	4	4	.....	.....	.....	.....
Philosophy	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	3	4	4
Physical education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
Physics	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	4	4	4
Psychology	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	2	.....	.....
Religious and moral education	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	1	1
Social studies	5	5	7	7	7	7	4	4	.....	1	2	2
Spanish and literature	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	3	3	3	3
Supplemental activities and/or more intensified academic or technical studies	9	4	8	3	7	3	7	3	10	.....	11	.....
Commercial												
Bookkeeping	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	3	.....	2	.....	3	.....	2
Business correspondence	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
Business mathematics	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	.....
Business psychology	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
Economics	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	.....
Elements of business law	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
Labor law	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
Office practice	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	1
Shorthand	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....
Statistics	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	.....	2
Stenography	.....	2	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Typing	.....	2	.....	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

SOURCE OF DATA: Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Memoria del Ministro de Educación Nacional*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1967. 4:45.

International correspondence courses may in certain circumstances be accepted by the Ministry of National Education. A certificate is issued describing work completed and grades received.[5] There is a 4-year school of accounting in Barranquilla which requires for admission prior completion of secondary commercial preparation.

[4] Decree 2433 of September 11, 1959. pp. 8–9.
[5] Decree 2117 of August 1, 1962. p. 8.

Industrial and Technical Education

Worker Training

The principal objectives of industrial and technical education are to prepare personnel for various occupations or industries while they complete their general education. Programs are established at different levels—industrial with a 4- or 5-year cycle, technical with a 5- or 7-year cycle.

The industrial schools function in towns and medium-sized cities. Principal subjects are cabinetwork, drafting, electricity, foundry, mechanics, metalwork, printing, smelting and welding, and, in some schools, ceramics, rattan weaving, saddlemaking, shoemaking, and tailoring. These schools confer the diploma of *experto*.

The higher technical institutes are found in major industrial centers. Basic courses are foreign languages, general education activities, mathematics, natural sciences, religion, shop and technology, social sciences, and technical drawing. More specialized courses are drafting, electricity, electronics, foundry, locksmith, mechanics, motors, etc. After 5 years of study, the diploma of *experto* is granted; after 7 years, the diploma of *bachiller técnico* (technical baccalaureate). About 39 hours a week are spent in class.[6] Over four-fifths of the nation's industrial education enrollments were in public institutions.

In large industrial centers such as Medellín, Cali, Barranquilla, and Bucaramanga, there has been a favorable labor market for students from the technical institutes (*institutos técnicos*). The proliferation of industrial schools (*escuelas industriales*), however, as a result of legislative initiatives or regional interest, has produced a larger but less qualified manpower pool. Technical institute graduates often serve as instructors for the National Apprenticeship Service's (SENA's) worker-training program, much of which is similar to that of the technical institutes.

Executive Training

The Colombian Institute of Administration (INCOLDA) is the nation's most important organization for improving the capabilities of executives and managerial personnel. Founded as a private organization in 1959, it has six centers in the major economic regions of the country. During its first 7 years, it gave 46,152 participants courses varying in length from 1 week to several months. Its programs are financed through tuition and institutional memberships.[7]

Agricultural Education

Vocational Agricultural Schools

In 1941 the Colombian Government, on the recommendation of a mission from Puerto Rico, established a system of vocational agricultural schools.

In 1965 only two out of a group of 37 public vocational agricultural schools offered as many as 4 years of secondary education. Enrollments

[6] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 71–72.
[7] Dieter K. Zschock. *Manpower Perspective in Colombia*. Princeton, N. J.: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1967. p. 109.

were distributed as follows: *Elementary annex (anexo)*—457; *prevocational*—381; *1st-year secondary*—973; *2d-year secondary*—592; *3d-year secondary*—406; and *4th-year secondary*—36.[8] Peace Corps volunteers taught English and recreation in seven of these schools.

By 1968, there were 65 public and 16 private agricultural institutions. Enrollments, although small, increased from 350 in 1950 to 7,930 in 1968, with 87.8 percent of the total in public institutions. Only 15.6 percent were women.[9]

Typically, the program consists of 1 year of prevocational education, which corresponds to the 5th year elementary school, and 2 years secondary agricultural education. Normal education, in preparing teachers for this area, consists of a secondary cycle of 6 years.

Since 1967, all public vocational agricultural schools are to function as secondary agricultural schools (*escuelas agropecuarias*), offering the 4-year basic cycle of secondary education. Table 7 shows the number of hours in each subject in the agricultural portion of this cycle. Coprogrammatic activities are to be dedicated exclusively to agricultural subjects. Schools unable to attain secondary standards will become elementary institutions.[10]

In vocational agricultural schools, the director is aided by an advisory committee of professors of his choice and, together with a chief fiscal officer, they meet weekly to determine policy. There is also an advisory committee of vocational teachers. A large percentage of the work done in these schools is general education, not vocational.

In addition, supplemental funds provide money for special farm projects. The fruits of this labor are divided between the school (60 percent) and the students (40 percent) in proportion to their work.

Supplemental Activities

Decree 1003 of 1961 calls for the formation of a parents' association in every school (*asociación de padres de familia*). It also calls for the establishment of a chapter of the Association of Future Farmers of Colombia (Club 4C), to consist of regular students plus those who have been out of school for less than 3 years. This latter organization is a required part of the school's program; it is not extracurricular. Decree Law 1598 of 1963 calls for the formation of school or youth cooperatives with an agricultural emphasis. They are to include sections dealing with consumption, credit and savings, production, and special services. Here the method most commonly favored is the project method, which aims at developing practical skills.[11] In addition to the above, there are about 600 4-S Clubs (*Saber*, *Sentimiento*, *Servicio*, and *Salud*, meaning knowledge, kindness, service, and health), with over 12,000 young members of both sexes who work on agricultural and home improvement projects. There are also 70 home improvement clubs, which enroll about 800 housewives who receive practical courses in domestic science.[12]

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[8] Ministerio de Educación Nacional and Instituto Colombiano Agropecuario. *Solicitud para un Proyecto de Educación Agrícola a Nivel Medio Presentado al Fondo Especial de Naciones Unidas*. Bogotá: ca. 1967. Figure 1, n.p. (Mimeograph)

[9] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *Censo de Establecimientos Educativos: 1968*. Bogotá: April 1970. pp. 28–29.

[10] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Decretos, Resoluciones y Convenios sobre la Educación Agropecuaria*. Bogotá: Editorial Bedout, 1967. p. 10.

[11] Ibid. pp. 56, 60, and 87.

[12] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 226.

Table 7.—*Number of hours in each subject of the vocational agricultural portion of the secondary basic-cycle curriculum, by grade and year: 1967*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject	Grade: 6 / Year: I	7 / II	8 / III	9 / IV
Agriculture				
Crops	7	6	5	5
Cooperativism				
Constitution, organization, and operation of cooperatives; nature and purposes of farm cooperatives	1	.....	.....	.....
Colombian cooperative legislation, cooperative practice, cooperative accounting	.....	1	.....	.....
Philosophy of cooperation, economic democracy, cooperative practice	.....	.....	1	.....
Cooperative economics, individualism, liberal economic doctrines	.....	.....	.....	1
Farm Shopwork				
Carpentry and ropemaking	1	1	.....	.....
Masonry	1	1	.....	.....
Rural construction and carpentry	.....	.....	1	1
Plumbing, brassworking, ironworking, and farm mechanics	.....	.....	1	1
Ironworking, farm mechanics, and electricity	.....	.....	.....	2
Livestock				
Rabbit growing	2	.....	.....	.....
Poultry raising	2	.....	.....	.....
Ewes	.....	2	.....	.....
Rams	.....	1	.....	.....
Beekeeping	.....	1	.....	.....
Young swine	.....	.....	1	1
Young cattle	.....	.....	1	1
Young horses	.....	.....	1	1

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Decretos, Resoluciones y Convenios sobre la Educación Agropecuaria.* Bogotá: Editorial Bedout, 1967. pp. 21–23.

Technical Agricultural Institutes

In 1967, three agricultural normal schools of Paipa, Buga, and Lorica became technical agricultural institutes (*institutos técnicos agropecuarios*). In 1969, three other institutions were authorized to offer similar training. Admission is based upon completion of the basic cycle of the secondary school. The curriculum, shown in table 8, consists of 3 years of study which integrate the subjects of the second cycle of general secondary education with those of 1 year of agricultural education. This leads to the diploma of *bachiller técnico agrícola* and qualifies the student for admittance to the university.

The technical agricultural institutes function with the advice of the Colombian Institute of Agriculture. Each one is to have a revolving fund (*fondo rotatorio*) to integrate agricultural production projects with teaching activities.[13] The Institute of Rural Education at Pamplona and the Higher Institute of Rural Guidance for Women at Bogotá are being converted into institutions to prepare secondary teachers to serve in these schools.

[13] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Decretos. . . .* op. cit. p. 8.

Increased emphasis by Colombian agencies and substantial assistance by UNESCO in the form of equipment, scholarships, and technicians between 1968 and 1972 will do much to strengthen education in these areas.

Table 8.—*Number of hours in each academic and vocational subject at technical agricultural institutes, by year: 1967*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject	Grade: Year: 10 V	11 VI	12 VII
Total	*42*	*43*	*43*
Academic			
Religious education	1	1	1
Psychology	2	.....	.....
Philosophy	3	2	2
Social studies [1]	2	1	2
Spanish and literature	2	2	2
Foreign languages [2]	4	4	2
Mathematics	3	2	.....
Physics	4	4	.....
Chemistry	4	4	.....
Physical education and sports	3	3	3
Esthetic education [3]	2	2	2
Vocational			
Soils	.....	4	4
Animal industry	4	3	.....
Fruit growing and gardening	4	2	.....
Plagues and diseases	.....	4	4
Crops	.....	3	3
Forestry	.....	.....	2
Irrigation and drainage	.....	.....	3
Farm technology	.....	.....	3
Farm machinery and machine shop	.....	.....	3
Farm administration, including credit	.....	.....	3
Agricultural extension and vocational teaching	.....	1	3
Accounting and cooperativism	3	.....	.....
Library	1	1	1

[1] Includes Colombian institutions, international citizenship, institutions for rural development, and sociology.

[2] Includes English and French.

[3] Includes drawing, music, and singing.

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Decretos, Resoluciones y Convenios sobre la Educación Agropecuaria.* Bogotá: Editorial Bedout, 1967. pp. 21–23.

Each of the technical agricultural institutes has a professional committee, which includes the rector, who presides, the local director of the Colombian Institute of Agriculture or his representative, a representative of the teachers of general education (chosen by the teachers), and representatives of the teachers of agricultural subjects (also chosen by them). Students who have taken appropriate courses from SENA may also have their work accepted if relevant. In addition, the Institutes may offer short courses to train their students in agricultural extension techniques.

Agricultural Extension

Modern agricultural extension methods introduced by an agency of the Point Four Program in 1954 have been widely employed not only by the Ministry of Agriculture but also by most Departmental secretariats of agriculture. These programs are staffed by agricultural engineers and home

improvement workers trained to make effective educational contact with peasants in their own communities. They are now administered by the Colombian Institute of Agriculture.

Rural Cooperative Education

The Colombian Institute of Agrarian Reform (INCORA) has been active in offering short courses to improve the efficiency of rural cooperatives. In one 4-year period INCORA gave more than 100 short courses for rural cooperative managers.

A newly developed team concerned with rural development has been designated to function in those areas where land reform is in progress—which include most of the country. The new educational program, which began functioning in 1968, emphasizes arithmetic, civic education, and literacy; its aim is to teach peasants to work together to improve their livelihood. If peasants fail to participate in these cooperatives, they may be denied loan credit. Courses are offered in hygiene, leadership training, marketing cooperatives, practical nursing, and swine production.

INCORA's team aims to work with other agencies concerned with these problems in advisory, supervisory, and evaluative capacities. Each of the 10 project teams includes an extension specialist, a home economics specialist, a social worker, and a sociologist. The program is sponsored by the Agency for International Development and others.

Complementary Education

Comprised of several miscellaneous kinds of instruction not literally grouped under that label, complementary education refers to the various types of vocational education, carried on in special institutions which provide not only secondary instruction but also training for specific occupations. In 1964 there were 424 men and 5,443 women enrolled in 66 public complementary schools. Private institutions classified under this term enrolled 202 men and 2,784 women in 33 different facilities.[14]

Problems

Despite Government efforts in agricultural education, it is estimated that all the agricultural programs together reach no more than 20 percent of the rural population.[15] The other nonagricultural types of education situated in rural areas (general secondary, normal, and industrial) frequently make few relevant contributions to the communities in which they are located because so many of their graduates migrate to the cities. Thus the two most useful institutions are the vocational agricultural schools for boys just described and the rural farm-home schools for girls, described later in this chapter under Women's Vocational Education.[16]

A weakness of the higher level agricultural institutions is that few of their students are from farm backgrounds. A survey of 479 students in three of the largest institutions showed, for example, that only 17 percent of the students felt that their parents would declare agriculture as their main occupation. Generally, only about 11 percent had a substantial

[14] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *La Educación en Colombia, 1963–64.* Bogotá: November 1966. pp. 17–18. (Mimeograph)
[15] Zschock. op. cit. p. 117.
[16] Gustavo Jiménez Cadena. *Sacerdote y Cambio Social.* Bogotá: Ediciones Tercer Mundo, 1967. p. 257.

amount of contact with farming apart from their formal training, while only 10 percent had at least occasional contact with rural people.[17]

Women's Vocational Education

Women achieved equality of educational opportunity after the 1957 plebiscite. Some women serve in Congress and in other responsible administrative positions. Many younger upper-class women are active in the professions, and there now appears to be little prejudice against their serving in positions of leadership. Four kinds of schools offer vocational education for women.

Supplementary and Higher Polytechnical Schools

The six women's polytechnical schools require for admission completion of the 5-year elementary school. They offer a 3-year course leading to a diploma in a selected specialization and emphasize knowledge about earning a living and operating small industries. Some of these schools offer an additional 2-year course to qualify their graduates as elementary teachers.

Schools for Rural Home Visitors

Requiring for admission 5 years of elementary education and a minimum age of 18 (to insure that students have sufficient maturity to work in rural community development), the course offered by schools for rural home visitors consists of 1 year of prevocational and 3 years of technical training. The course includes fundamental subject matter (such as language, mathematics, natural science, and religion) and subjects of a professional nature, including child care, entertainment, first aid, folklore activities and recreation, home economics, legal information, medical information, nutrition and diet, preventive medicine, psychology, social service, and socioeconomic subject matter. The Ministry of National Education's Higher Institute of Rural Guidance for Women, which in 1967 became the Institute of Rural Education, is responsible for preparing teachers for rural community development.[18]

Farm-Home Schools

Seeking to elevate living standards among rural girls between the ages of 14 and 20, farm-home schools provide at least 3 years of elementary schooling. In 1964 there were 39 public schools of this type, enrolling 2,217 women, and six private schools, enrolling 422 women. Offering women between the ages of 18 and 25 a 3-year course based on 5 years of elementary instruction, there are one public school and 24 private auxiliary schools of private nursing, most of them functioning with university sponsorship. Graduates receive the diploma of nurse's aide. There were also 12 schools preparing nurse's aides in 1964—six public and six private, enrolling a total of 538 women.[19]

In addition to the women enrolled in these four kinds of vocational

[17] Dale W. Adams. "Leadership, Education and Agricultural Development Programs in Colombia," *Inter-American Economic Affairs*. 22: 92–93, Summer 1968.
[18] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Decretos*. . . . op. cit. p. 10.
[19] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *La Educación*. . . . op. cit. p. 26.

schools, a significant number were enrolled in artistic programs in 1964. For example, of the 4,791 students taking artistic training in 19 public institutions, and of the 975 students in 10 private establishments serving artistic interests, slightly over half were women.[20]

Military Education

The armed forces provide two types of training. One increases the military competency of professional officers and soldiers, and the other provides fundamental education for recruits who later will return to civilian life. Four institutions, enrolling 773 men in 1966, functioned on the secondary or higher level—two in Bogotá and one each in Cali and Cartagena.[21] For ordinary soldiers, strictly military education may be complemented with academic subjects up to the 1st year of general secondary school. Some further specialized training is also offered. More than 3,000 soldiers were receiving such training in various fundamental skills in the mid-1960's. For those soldiers about to complete their term of military service the National Apprenticeship Service (SENA) in 1967 established a program of agricultural training in five centers, under contract with the armed forces.

Students acquiring metalworking skills on lathes in a National Apprenticeship Service (SENA) workshop
—Courtesy of Colombia Information Service

The National Apprenticeship Service (SENA)

The National Apprenticeship Service is Colombia's most unique contribution to industrial and vocational education. (It has been emulated

[20] Ibid. p. 27.
[21] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Estadísticas Globales de la Educación Superior en Colombia, (Resumen), Años 1960–1966*. Bogotá: División de Planeación, September 1967. pp. 10–11. (Mimeograph)

in several other Latin American countries.) A semiautonomous agency of the Ministry of Labor, it is supported by a payroll tax levied upon employers. The agency has its national headquarters in Bogotá, but is served by regional offices in all 22 Departments.

Organization

SENA's directive council consists of representatives from the Ministry of National Education and the Ministry of Labor, the Cardinal Archbishop, Primate of Colombia, representatives from industry (The National Association of Manufacturers), from business (The National Federation of Businessmen), from the Association of Small Industries, and from cattlemen, farmers, workers, and their respective organizations. SENA is advised by officials of the International Labor Organization (Geneva).[22] The service is particularly well financed, due partly to the close political support it receives from powerful unions such as the Union of Colombian Workers and the Confederation of Colombian Workers.

Financing

According to Law 58 enacted in 1963, all private businesses and public corporations whose capital is more than 50,000 pesos, or who have more than 10 permanent employees, must contribute to SENA. These organizations are taxed 6 percent of their monthly payrolls, 4 percent of which goes to family subsidies and 2 percent to SENA. Official organizations also contribute 0.5 percent. Twenty percent of this money goes to the organization's national office, which has responsibility for advising, supervising, and planning SENA programs.[23]

Training Programs

The organization's principal aim is to provide vocational and practical training that will enable workers to perform more effectively, both technically and personally. Instead of providing training for a specific industry based on its contribution to the central organization, SENA offers training to those sectors of industry and commerce in which its detailed surveys of employment conditions (discussed later in this chapter) have shown the greatest need. The program as a whole is directed toward youths between the ages of 14 and 20 who have finished elementary education or its equivalent. Applicants for training are selected on the basis of superior qualifications. Training does not exceed 3 years and is usually alternated with employment.

Some SENA programs are directed toward adult employees. One of these is supplementary training (*complementación*), which upgrades a worker's skills. Such training usually lasts about 1 year and is carried out during the employee's free time. Other courses seek to overcome deficiencies in basic education which hinder a worker's performance of his duties. Adult training also is offered for semiskilled jobs, for jobs at higher levels of supervisory responsibility, and for a specific technical vocation.[24]

[22] Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje (SENA). *La Formación Profesional en Colombia.* Bogotá: SENA, 1967. pp. 11–12.
[23] Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje (SENA). *Una Década al Servicio de Colombia, 1957–1967.* Bogotá: Antares-Tercer Mundo, 1967. n.p.
[24] Ibid.

Training contracts may be arranged between SENA and an industry if it has more than 20 permanent employees and if its apprentices do not exceed more than 5 percent of its total labor force. Although industry is the focus of the programs, service is also provided to agriculture.

Origins

The Union of Colombian Workers at their national congress in Medellín in 1954 requested the Government to create an institution to train workers. The next year the Government created the Colombian Institute for Labor Training. In 1956, the International Labor Organization came to Colombia to study the operation of the new Institute and recommended certain improvements based on experience in Brazil in the same field. In 1957 SENA was created and in 1959 the first program was begun when 26 businesses in Antioquia undertook to sponsor the training of 123 apprentices. Legislation was passed in 1963 which improved SENA's financial support.[25]

Although serving all of Colombia, SENA's efforts are greatest in the industrial centers of the Departments of Antioquia, Cundinamarca, and Valle, where three of the four major cities are located. The scope of its activities in 1969 is indicated as follows: [26]

Area of specialization	*Number of trainees*	*Number of student hours*
Total	154,057	20,622,724
Agriculture	61,536	5,680,870
Commercial	50,960	6,458,772
Industrial	41,561	8,483,082

SENA has had substantial influence on vocational education. From 1958 to the end of 1966, it trained 180,928 workers, of whom 25,811 were apprentices and 155,117 were adult employees. In 1966 the organization had 884 full-time and 308 part-time instructors and 722 units (classrooms and shops) with facilities for 13,000 students. Nearly 6,000 apprentices and 41,000 adults were enrolled. SENA has also trained 115 instructors and 25 leaders and promotors in the areas of industrial and vocational training for 13 other Latin American countries.[27]

In agriculture, SENA has (1) made training agreements with FAO and Massey-Ferguson concerning farm machinery utilization; (2) worked with the National Federation of Coffee Growers to provide courses in more effective land utilization; (3) offered courses to farm credit supervisors and irrigation district supervisors for INCORA; (4) conducted courses for farm women in domestic science and in labor specialties suited to women; and (5) received and administered technical assistance from the United Kingdom for sheep raising. Many other foreign countries also have made technical contributions which SENA has administered.

[25] Ibid.
[26] Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje (SENA). *Informe Financiera a 31 de Diciembre 1969*. Bogotá: SENA, 1970. p. 30. (Mimeograph)
[27] Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje (SENA). *La Formación Profesional en Colombia*. op. cit. pp. 18, 43, and 44; appendix 2, p. 1.; and appendix 3, p. 9.

Surveys of Vocational Needs

To identify the nation's most urgent vocational needs, SENA has conducted surveys in many areas of the country which have demonstrated the need for vocational training. For example, a study of 21 important job categories from the Department of Chocó, one of the nation's most underdeveloped regions, showed that 74.5 percent of administrators in public services, 73.3 percent of cashiers and financial officers, 70.6 percent of retail employees, 84.4 percent of truck drivers, 68.2 percent of waiters, and 100 percent of welders needed further training. Occupations with the least need for further training were unskilled ones such as carpenters—20.7 percent; construction workers—2.0 percent; electrical linemen—10.0 percent; and practical nurses—16.3 percent. A need for more rather than better trained personnel was indicated in regard to accountants, bookkeepers, retail employees, and typists. Studies of other regions have shown that needs vary enormously from one section of the country to another.[28]

Problems and Responsibilities

Demand for SENA Training.—There is an increasing demand for SENA apprenticeship training. Both the 3-year apprenticeship program of SENA and the Ministry of National Education vocational courses require 5 years of elementary schooling as a prerequisite; however, as a result of the secondary school reform introduced in 1963 by the Ministry of National Education, most Ministry school programs offer an academically oriented first cycle of 4 years, while SENA programs lead directly into vocational training. Consequently, the number of students desiring SENA apprenticeship training is increasing to such an extent that regular secondary schools, no longer in demand for vocational training, are discontinuing their vocational training programs during the first cycle.[29] However, the new National Institutes of Middle Education will give considerable emphasis to vocational courses in their first cycle.

Blue-Collar Training.—SENA is faced with increasing responsibility for blue-collar training. So far, however, educational opportunities offered by SENA are open to only one-third of the total labor force—to those employed in businesses of a given minimal size. Vocational training is also needed for employees in the smaller businesses, and the Ministry of National Education is not sufficiently well financed to supply this need.

Retraining of Workers.—Because SENA's specialized courses usually train workers for specific jobs, rather than provide them with general occupational skills, these workers may have to be retrained continuously as the industries modernize. This retraining restricts SENA's expansion of its service to additional workers.[30]

Personal Development.—A related responsibility is that of personal development. Workers may be considered valuable employees for reasons other than their technical skill; thus a worker who is dependable—who arrives at work on time, is careful, and has a sense of responsibility—is more

[28] Servicio Nacional de Aprendizaje (SENA). *Personal Ocupado y Necesidades de Formación Profesional en la Seccional del Chocó.* Bogotá: División de Recursos Humanos. Informe de la Encuesta de 1966 en las Divisiones de Actividad Económica 1 a 9, November 1967. Similar studies have been prepared for other areas. The one cited deals mainly with Quibdó.
[29] Zschock. op. cit. p. 112.
[30] Ibid. pp. 113–15.

valuable than a worker who is not dependable. SENA tries to add this personal-development dimension to its training whenever possible.

Personal development, however, is also a responsibility of general education. Although the Ministry of National Education may not always be effective in this area, it might be much more so if it were as well financed as SENA. One advantage possessed by SENA that leads to its financial support is that it provides training which seems to serve the immediate purpose of national development in a material sense, even though it does reach only a very small proportion of the working force.

Selection of Adults.—Another difficulty encountered by SENA concerns the selection of adult trainees, who usually want to prepare for jobs other than those in which they are presently employed, whereas the purpose of the SENA program is to better qualify them in positions directly or closely related to the ones they originally held.

Training of Rural Workers.—Because most workers need fundamental literacy and mathematical skills before technical training becomes feasible, the development of rural training programs is especially difficult. Rural workers are in greatest need of SENA's skills. The rural sector, however, although it represents 46.8 percent of the businesses which contribute to SENA and employs 50 percent of working-age people, produces only 9.1 percent of the taxable salaries which support SENA's efforts.[31]

Criticisms

A number of general criticisms of vocational education have been advanced during the past 5 years. One is that its industrial education programs do not correspond to the needs of industry. Another criticism is that the milieu of the schools does not develop the fundamental attitudes or personal values necessary for effective practice of a trade or profession. Students are often said to lack judgment and ability in adapting to varying circumstances.

A third criticism is that many agricultural, commercial, and industrial schools have programs so different in their vocational aspects, that transfer from one specialty to another is impeded. It has been suggested that these programs be reoriented so that they more effectively complement the work of the National Apprenticeship Service (SENA). As a matter of fact, some effort has already been made to accept SENA vocational courses for credit toward relevant portions of the *bachillerato* program in public secondary schools. This move is important because the limited number of places in secondary vocational schools has often forced a student to enroll in the traditional academic *bachillerato* program even though his interest is vocational.[32] As the current emphasis on the new Institutes of Middle Education indicates, Colombians recognize these problems and are making every effort to effect lasting improvements.

[31] Rodolfo Martínez Tono. *Una Revolución Pacífica.* Bogotá: Ediciones Tercer Mundo, 1967. p. 42.
[32] Daniel Arango. *Informe del Ministro de Educación al Congreso Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1966. pp. 23, 52, and 76.

9. Higher Education

Almost all universities in Colombia are academic institutions dedicated primarily to preparing their students for the professions. With few exceptions, responsibility for liberal education has been relegated to secondary education. Moreover, despite its growing stature, research in most Colombian universities has been more of an ideal than a reality. Since the learned professions have always been highly regarded, the university is in many ways the intellectual and political heart of Latin American life. There is, however, a more pragmatic need for high-level training. A 1965 study showed that no higher education had been received by 64.1 percent of Colombian administrative personnel and by 8.2 percent of working professionals.[1]

Since the typical university program offers preparation almost exclusively for one particular profession, all of a student's courses are taken in one *facultad* (college or department) of the university. The curriculum usually devotes little or no time to the liberal arts, and there is seldom an opportunity for electives. The university *facultades* feel that they are fully competent to determine the curriculums of their respective fields; consequently, they are strongly inclined to resist interference by university authorities who are not members of their profession. They consider that electives are unnecessary not only because they cost more to provide but also because they agree that there exists a definite body of well-conceived professional knowledge which all students need to master. In the mid-1950's, however, a trend toward offering general or liberal education in the first year or two, followed by intensive specialization, began in the Universities of Cartagena and Los Andes and in the Industrial University of Santander. This has since spread to a number of other important institutions.

History

Colombian higher education has a long tradition. In 1580 the Papal Bull of Gregory XIII approved the founding of the Thomistic University under the Dominican sponsorship. The University had the same rights and privileges as those at Salamanca and Alcalá de Henares in Spain and could grant the degrees of *bachiller*, *doctor*, *licenciado*, and *magister*. There followed the establishment of Javeriana University of the Company of Jesus in 1622, the Colegio Mayor del Rosario in 1653, and the Franciscan

[1] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). *Recursos y Requerimientos de Personal de Alto Nivel, 1964–1975*. Bogotá: ICETEX, Departamento de Recursos Humanos, 1965. p. 85.

Colegio Mayor de San Buenaventura *circa* 1715. These institutions taught divine knowledge (theology and canon law) and human knowledge (philosophy, arts, jurisprudence, literature, and sometimes medicine). They carried the tradition of scholasticism to the New World in an evangelical spirit. Their main function was to train clergy and State officials.

The expulsion of the Jesuits by Carlos III in 1767 was a blow to the country's higher education. Javeriana University was forced to close. Colegio Mayor del Rosario, however, then emerged as a center for early scientific interests—particularly its Botanical Expedition and later Astronomical Observatory. Many leaders of the Independence movement were its graduates.

After Independence, some of the early 19th century *colegios* were converted to universities by Vice President Santander. These institutions formed the nucleus of the present public Departmental universities, particularly in Antioquia, Bogotá, Cartagena, and Cauca. Later, Law 66 of 1867 created National University in Bogotá.

These newer universities marked a departure from the older, strictly ecclesiastical tradition. Inspired by the French Revolution, their emphasis was more secular. Even their structure resembled that of French universities. Law, literature, medicine, and (to a lesser extent) engineering and science were the basic courses. Moreover, the State asserted more direct influence, including expropriation of many institutes belonging to the Roman Catholic Church. The Externado de Colombia, which for many years distinguished itself in law, became in 1886 the first nonreligious private institution.[2]

The founding of new public universities gained impetus in the 20th century. Some of those established include the University of Nariño (1904), the *Escuela Naval de Cadetos de Colombia* (1935), and the Universities of Atlántico (1946), Caldas (1943), and Valle (1945). Major private institutions were the Free University (1923), Javeriana University (restored in 1932), and Pontificia Bolivariana University (1936).

Many new institutions followed World War II, among them the Industrial University of Santander (1947), the Universities of Los Andes (1948) and Medellín (1950), the National Pedagogical University (1951), La Gran Colombia University (1951), the Pedagogical and Technological University in Tunja (1953), and the University of Tolima (1954).

The Industrial University of Santander introduced programs preparing students for practical technical careers, and its high academic standards today make it one of the best schools in its field. The private University of Los Andes has been noted for its high quality programs and for its use of some teaching methods currently employed in the United States and Europe. Some private institutions (notably La Gran Colombia University) have sought to make higher education accessible to the masses by introducing night classes.[3]

At the end of the 18th century, there were three Colombian institutions of higher learning; a century later there were only six; by 1946 there were 14 institutions enrolling 7,337 students; and by 1957 there were about 30 (not including religious seminaries and military schools) enrolling more

[2] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación Universitaria en Colombia.* Bogotá: Fondo Universitario Nacional, 1967. pp. 1–2. (Mimeograph)
[3] Ibid. pp. 3–5.

than 15,000 students.[4] In 1970 there were 34 approved universities and many others using the name. University enrollment increased 997 percent between 1938 and 1962,[5] and by 1970 had reached a total of almost 79,000 students in approved institutions.[6] The recent history of Colombian higher education is one of rapid expansion.

Organization

A distinctive feature of Colombian higher education is its two levels, identified by Decree 1297 of 1964 as university and nonuniversity higher education.

University Higher Education

An institution offering university education generally admits a student who has attended secondary school for 6 years and received a *bachillerato* degree. (Some universities admit a student with only 4 years of secondary education to particular courses.) Only an institution on the university level grants degrees. Some offer a few postgraduate programs.

Nonuniversity Higher Education

An institution offering nonuniversity education may admit a student who has attended a secondary school for either 4 or 6 years or has passed an entrance examination. It offers postsecondary specialized programs and grants three diplomas—*técnico* (after 3 years), *experto* (after 2 years), and *perito* (after 1 year). Students receiving these diplomas may later transfer to a university. Nonuniversity higher education standards are usually at a slightly lower level than those of full-status universities, although many do offer work of university quality.

Nonuniversity institutions include (1) agricultural normal schools, (2) higher schools of women's education and culture, (3) higher technical institutes of business, and (4) the Industrial Normal School. Some approved universities also have special programs for nonuniversity students. This vast assortment of programs is now the administrative responsibility of the Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education (ICFES), discussed later in this chapter.

The Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education (ICFES)

History

In 1954 the predecessor of the Institute for the Development of Higher Education (ICFES), the National University Fund, was created as a decentralized public body.[7] Its aim was to coordinate university efforts, especially in securing specialized teachers and in organizing postgraduate programs.

In 1957 the rectors of 23 universities formed the Colombian Association of Universities, a private organization which sought to improve higher

[4] Ibid. p. 10.
[5] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia*. Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1965. p. 151.
[6] Worksheet tabulation prepared by the Colombian Institute of Higher Education (ICFES). March 1970.
[7] ICFES is the result of a decree of December 1968 which reorganized the National University Fund.

education. In 1958 the National University Fund was reorganized so that its activities could be coordinated with those of the Colombian Association of Universities.

Under a 1961 statute the National University Fund was to be financed by the National Government and by Departments and municipal districts interested in higher education. This support is based on (1) 1 percent of the entire Ministry of National Education budget; (2) 2½ percent of the National support granted to affiliated public and private institutions, not to exceed 300,000 pesos per university; (3) not less than 10 percent of the Ministry of National Education budget allotted for the support of Departmental universities; and (4) not less than 2 percent of the budget designated for private universities.[8]

Purposes and Administration

When the National University Fund was reorganized in 1958 the following purposes emerged:[9]

1. To increase university involvement in the study of national problems.
2. To sponsor specialized studies.
3. To conduct scholarly seminars.
4. To sponsor publications.
5. To promote student and teacher welfare programs.
6. To serve as a specialized Government agency in inspecting and supervising university activities and programs (1964 Decree).
7. To distribute national funds to public regional universities and private institutions.

The new organization included the following:

1. A National Council of Rectors representing those universities legally approved and affiliated with the Colombian Association of Universities.
2. A six-member administrative committee.
3. A director named by the Council of Rectors.

Authorization

In 1970, ICFES listed 34 institutions as legally approved and thus members of the Colombian Association of Universities. Other institutions may use the name "university," but are not authorized to award university degrees; they may award diplomas such as *técnico*, *experto*, and *perito*. Several institutions have only parts of their programs recognized by law.

Achievements

A number of important accomplishments have been claimed by the

[8] Pan American Union. *Highlights of Education in Colombia.* Washington, D.C.: Department of Educational Affairs, 1967. p. 12. *and* Augusto Franco A. "Una Esperiencia Nacional: La Asociación Colombiana de Universidades y el Planeamiento de la Educación Universitaria en Colombia," in—Pan American Union. *Corrientes de la Educación Superior en América.* Washington: Departamento de Asuntos Educativos, 1966. p. 21.

[9] Augusto Franco A. "Una Experiencia Nacional & la Asociación Colombiana de Universidades y el Planeamiento de la Educación Universitaria en Colombia," *Crónica Universitaria.* 5: 13–15. 1967. (Similar to preceding work)

forerunner of ICFES, the National University Fund, in association with the Colombian Association of Universities. These include the following: [10]

1. *Cooperation among universities.*—University rectors now know one another better. Consequently, some private universities organized for profit became nonprofit institutions.

2. *Increased enrollments.*—The number of students has grown from 15,000 in 1957 to nearly 79,000 in 1970.

3. *Academic planning.*—Although this is still insufficient, more than 55 national seminars have been conducted with deans and specialists in science, humanities, and the professions. They have provided invaluable orientation, and their results have been published. In addition, permanent committees have been established for various careers and disciplines.

4. *Quality of program.*—Quality and efficiency have been improved in areas of interest to the National University Fund, particularly in institutional evaluation and admission practices. There has also been an increase in the number and percentage of full-time professors—from 790 in 1957 to 3,327 in 1968. Admission procedures have been centralized in member institutions, and selection procedures have been made less capricious. Institutional evaluation is being performed more and more by distinguished specialists in subject-matter fields, and their roles are gradually becoming advisory as well as punitive.

5. *University reform.*—Many universities are beginning to effectively reorganize themselves. They have moved from a variety of almost completely independent *facultades* to an effective sharing of resources and facilities. This has resulted in much more efficient program development, especially in science, research, and postgraduate study, and in simplified admissions procedures.

6. *Career diversification.*—The number of careers for which a student can prepare has more than doubled during the past 10 years, with great increases in agriculture, education, and engineering enrollments. Traditional professions such as law and medicine have declined slightly, while technical subjects have become more prominent. Well-structured short careers are still in the process of development, however, and the same is true of postgraduate instruction.

7. *Student welfare.*—Considerable progress has been made in this area, where there had been little before. There are now better loan facilities, better medical and dental services, and more dormitory and cafeteria facilities. Other cooperative achievements include: Two university theater festivals, five national choral contests, eight national championship matches in sports, and community action work involving many students.

University planning is considered of great importance, but the Colombian Association of Universities has sought to persuade rather than coerce in bringing about needed changes. Its encouragement has led to development planning offices in 17 universities and has produced a basic plan for higher education. The recent reorganization which produced the Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education (ICFES) has tended to place higher education more clearly under the influence of the Ministry of National Education and has established a clearer separation between its role and that of the Colombian Association of Universities.

[10] Ibid. pp. 15–17.
Data for 1968—Asociación Colombiana de Universidades *and* Fondo Universitario Nacional. *Estadísticas de la Educación Superior en Colombia.* Bogotá: División de Planeación, January 1969. p. 12. (Mimeograph)
Data for 1970—ICFES worksheet tabulation, March 1970.

ICFES has also encouraged efforts to develop Regional University Corporations linking several universities.

Problems

Critics of the Association regard it as a privileged club. Many Colombian university-level institutions have not been approved and admitted to its membership, and yet come under its supervision. In their first meeting in 1964, these unapproved institutions complained that they were excluded simply because they did not exist in 1957 when, without any legal definition as to what actually constituted a university, the Association was formed. They argued that some institutions founded since this date are excluded even though they are as well qualified as some of the present members. The 1964 meeting of non-Association members urged that standards be established which would serve to classify and define institutional status and membership eligibility.[11] Several additional institutions have been admitted to membership in recent years, and a decree was drafted in 1969 which sets forth accreditation procedures.

At present, new universities may be created in a variety of ways—by a law passed by the National Congress, by a decree law emanating from the office of the President and signed by all ministers, or by laws enacted by Departmental assemblies. University officials are also expected to submit evidence of their institution's eligibility to ICFES.

The law also requires that ecclesiastical, industrial, and political figures be represented on university councils. Such legislation, while appropriate theoretically, often means in practice that university leadership is vulnerable to political vagaries.

Autonomy

Colombian universities have had about as much autonomy as their counterparts in other Latin American countries. Although there has been considerable freedom of teaching, the achievement of a corporate identity and the right to be governed by its own legal bodies was not granted to National University until Law 68 of 1935. This legislation also opened the door to the construction of a modern and attractive university city.[12]

Efforts to achieve university autonomy were relatively weak until 1957, when the Association of Colombian Universities was founded with this as one of its major purposes. Autonomy had generally been restricted to freedom in classroom discussion. The political activism common to some parts of Latin America was less well developed in Colombia. Professors at public universities are considered essentially employees of the government on either National, Departmental, or municipal levels, while the private universities, with a few exceptions, are sponsored by the Roman Catholic Church. Although freedom of teaching is guaranteed by the National Constitution, the President has the final authority in public universities. In recent years this authority has been employed to suppress several extremist student demonstrations.

Decree Law 0277 of July 1958 established fuller autonomy for public universities. Its intent was to free higher education institutions from

[11] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 277.
[12] Orlando Fals Borda. "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of Education in Colombia," in *The Caribbean: Contemporary Colombia* (A. Curtis Silgus, ed.). Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962. p. 207.

political intervention and to bring professors and students into their principal policymaking bodies. Known usually as higher councils (*consejos superiores*), these bodies also include the Governor and the Departmental secretary of education, both of whom are politically influential. Moreover, representatives of professional associations, as well as the former students who also sit on this council, are subject to the approval of the Governor and his secretary of education.[13] Thus, in public universities, the weight of external members such as the Church, ministers of education and finance, academies, and business and professional groups is greater than that of the university itself.[14] In 1970, the *consejo superior* closed National University for a semester in response to a student strike which originated in the medical school.

Finances

Source of Income

National funds for higher education increased from 2.7 percent of the total budget in 1963 to 4.4 percent in 1966. Contributions from the Departments did not increase as much, while municipal support remained about the same. Income for higher education in 1966 came from the following sources: [15]

Source	*Percent*
Total	*100.0*
National Government	45.0
Departmental government	12.8
Municipal government	4.0
Other*	38.2

*Such as donations, investment returns, and tuition

The National Government through ICFES contributed 421 million pesos to universities in 1969.[16]

Loans to Universities

In the development of a number of universities, loans (usually from foreign sources) have played an important role. For example, National University in 1964 and 1966 received loans totaling $8.8 million. The money is being used to hire more full-time professors, establish new courses, and improve university facilities. The 1964 loan established an institute of basic sciences and bought new equipment and facilities for engineering and sociology. The 1966 loan financed the construction of new buildings and/or improvements in 12 different *facultades* of the University. It also provided for the purchase of improved branch facilities in Manizales, Medellín, and Palmira.

In 1966 a loan of $5.3 million was made to the University of Antioquia to help finance a $9.6 million project to construct a new campus on a 48-hectares plot near Medellín. This loan includes money for a general

[13] Lyman H. Legters et al. *U.S. Army Handbook for Colombia* (No. 550–26). Washington: U.S. Goverment Printing Office, 1964. p. 162.
[14] Germán Rama. "Algunos Hipótesis sobre Investigación y Modernización en la Universidad Nacional de Colombia." Paper presented to the Latin American Congress of Sociology in Mexico City, November 21–25, 1969. p. 6. (Mimeograph)
[15] Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Boletín*. Bogotá: Secretaría, September 1967. I:47 and 33.
[16] Instituto Colombiano para el Fomento de la Educación Superior (ICFES). *Boletín de Prensa*. February 1970.

studies program, schools of economics, education, engineering, and law, a central library, and laboratories. In 1965 a loan of $500,000 was granted to the University of Valle for a similar purpose—to help finance a new university city. In the same year another loan of $1 million was granted to the University of Los Andes to improve its engineering *facultad*.[17]

Tuition and Student Loans

Tuition in public universities is computed on a sliding scale based on the income of the student's parents. At National University, for example, tuition since 1962 has been based on taxable income, unless this income is less than 4 percent of the family's net worth. A family earning between 5,000 and 7,000 pesos per month would pay 250 pesos per year per student; a family earning more than 28,000 pesos would pay no more than 1,500 per student.[18] This procedure has been criticized on the grounds that although families with students in higher education as a class possess greater ability to pay than does the rest of the population, they in fact pay a much smaller proportion of the total cost of their education than do parents of secondary students.

At National University, the best student in each *facultad* receives free tuition and others with high averages receive tuition reductions. The most able student is offered a foreign study grant.[19]

In most private universities, tuition is the same for all students, although it may vary from one *facultad* to another within the same institution. Charges range from 750 to 15,000 pesos.

In response to an initiative by ICETEX, many Colombian banks have extended credit at nominal interest to students for tuition, living expenses, and books. In addition, ICETEX granted 2,774 loans from 17 special funds between 1961 and 1965.[20] A 1966 survey at National University showed that 22.8 percent of the students in the sample currently had a loan. Of these, 48.8 percent had a loan from ICETEX, 31.8 percent from a bank, 17.6 percent from another type of institution, and 1.2 percent from an individual.[21]

Enrollments

Total Increase

Enrollment in Colombian higher education is larger than ever before. Between 1961 and 1966 university students have increased from 1.7 per thousand population to 2.7 per thousand.[22] In 1969, a total of 87,691 students were enrolled in both university and nonuniversity higher education. Enrollments were distributed as follows: [23]

[17] Banco Interamericano de Desarrollo. *Actividades, 1961–1966*. 1966. p. 33.
[18] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento*. Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media. September 1967. 1967. 1:69–70 pp. 69–70.
[19] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 220–21.
[20] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación. . . .* op. cit. pp. 65 and 67.
[21] No reply was received from 0.6 percent. Humberto Rojas et al. *Los Estudiantes de la Universidad Nacional*. Bogotá: Universidad Nacional, Facultad de Sociología, Informe Técnico. 1966. 7:76.
[22] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Antecedentes y Perspectivas del Desarrollo Cuantitativo de la Educación Superior en Colombia, 1968–1975*. Bogotá: División de Planeación, October 1967. p. 29.
[23] ICFES worksheet tabulation. March 1970.

Grand total	*87,691*
University total	*71,521*
Approved public	39,160
Approved private	28,865
Not approved	3,496
Nonuniversity total	*16,170*

There were only 58 women enrolled in all universities in 1935. By 1968, 26 percent of all students were women, but they were proportionately more numerous in private universities.

By Field of Study

The increase in enrollments during the past generation has been accompanied by a general decline in the number of law students and a comparative rise in the number of students in agriculture, education, engineering, and the sciences; in the social sciences, a vast majority have concentrated in economics and industrial relations.[24] This diversifying of university specialization represents a desirable trend.

The total 1968 undergraduate enrollment in university education—excluding students taking courses for which only 4 of the 6 years of secondary education are required for admission—was 65,013. The number of students in each field was as follows: [25]

Total	*65,013*	Health sciences	6,744
Agriculture and related fields	4,109	Humanities	3,660
Education	5,206	Law	6,480
Engineering and related fields	16,236	Social sciences	11,477
Exact sciences	1,812	Other	5,266
Fine arts	4,023		

University Size

Although the size of Colombian universities varies considerably, most are very small. A summary of 1970 data shows the number of institutions of various size enrollments: [26]

Number of students	*Number of institutions*	*Name of institution(s)*
Over 9,000	1	National University
6,000 to 9,000	1	University of Antioquia
4,000 to 6,000	1	Javeriana University
3,000 to 4,000	4	La Gran Colombia University
		University of Tolima
		University of Valle
		University Foundation of Bogotá "Jorge Tadeo Lozano"
2,000 to 3,000	7	Free University
		Industrial University of Santander
		Pontificia Bolivariana University
		University of Atlántico
		University of Caldas
		University of Los Andes
		University Foundation of América
1,000 to 2,000	11	------
500 to 1,000	5	------
Under 500	12	------

[24] Dieter K. Zschock. *Manpower Perspective in Colombia*. Princeton, N.J.: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1967. p. 101.
[25] ICFES worksheet tabulation. March 1970.
[26] Ibid.

Curriculum

Colombian university *facultades* are usually much more self-sufficient than the U.S. university department or college. The typical *facultad* hires its own professors to teach whatever nonprofessional courses in foreign language, mathematics, or sociology it may require in addition to its professional subjects. During the past few years, however, there has been a pronounced trend in many important universities toward the U.S. practice of offering basic introductory courses in general education which serve all or most university departments.

Program Length

Courses of study range in length from 1 year (civil aviation) to 6 years (medicine). The length varies with each *facultad*. Four years of study, including the completion of a thesis, may lead to the doctorate, although in a number of fields 5 or 6 years are required. Many students finish the required years of course work without completing the final examination and/or the thesis required for the degree.

Fields of Study

Of the more than 50 fields of study offered by universities, many have made their appearance gradually. The following list shows the years in which various fields of study were introduced:

1911	agronomy
1920	veterinary medicine
1927	pharmacy
1932	dentistry
1936	architecture and social work
1938	chemistry and psychology
1944	nursing
1947	public health
1951	economics
1959	sociology
1960	electronics
1961	public administration

Although sociology and economics have been received with some suspicion by *facultades* in more traditional subjects, careers in these fields are becoming increasingly popular.[27]

Flexibility

The traditional curriculum of the various *facultades* provides few or no electives. All students take the same courses in the same semester sequence (except for *facultades* using the recently introduced variations of the U.S. credit and elective system). Most courses are specialized rather than general. In some universities, a few *facultades* permit a considerable amount of flexibility, while others allow absolutely none. Smaller institutions are more likely to follow the traditional curriculum than larger ones. Samples of professional curriculums from representative institutions appear in tables 9, 10, 11, and 12. All except the curriculum in table 12 are largely traditional.

[27] Fals Borda. op. cit. p. 192.

Table 9.—*Number of hours in each subject at the* facultad *of law and political science, National University (Bogotá), by year: 1968*

Subject and year	Hours
First	
General constitutional law	3
Civil law (general and industrial)	5
Introduction to law	3
Roman law I	3
General political economy	3
General and American sociology	3
Humanities	3
Languages (French)	3
Social doctrines	1
Pro seminar	3
Second	
Colombian constitutional law	3
Civil law (property)	4
General penal law	4
Labor law (industrial)	3
Public and American international law	3
Roman law II	3
Colombian economy	3
Languages (French)	3
Pro seminar	3
Legal medicine	3
Third	
General administrative law	3
Civil law (obligations)	4
Colombian penal law (regulations I to X of Penal Code)	3
Labor law (group and social security)	3
Mines and petroleum	3
Public finance	3
Languages (varying with specialization)	2
Seminar [1]	3
Fourth	
Colombian administrative law	3
Civil law (contracts)	4
Civil law (family)	3
Colombian penal law (regulations XI to XVI of Penal Code)	3
General commercial law	4
General civil trial law	4
Penal trial law	3
Cooperative law (semester)	3
Languages (varying with specialization)	2
Seminar [1]	3
Fifth	
Philosophy of law	3
Civil law (estates)	4
Special commercial law	3
Private international law	3
Probate law	4
Special civil trial law	4
Labor trial law	2
Commercial law	3
Professional ethics (semester)	3
Languages (varying with specialization)	2
Seminar [1] (forensic practice)	3

[1] Seminars for the 3d, 4th, and 5th years provide an opportunity for the student to specialize during his last 3 years in one of the following fields of law: labor, penal, private, and public. Fifth-year seminars are oriented toward practice of the chosen field of law. A thesis is required for the doctorate.

SOURCE OF DATA: Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Boletín.* Bogotá: Facultad de y Ciencias Políticas, 1964. pp. 14–15. The curriculum was current in 1968.

Table 10.—*Number of hours in each subject of the 5-year civil engineering course, Javeriana University (Bogotá), by semester:*[1] *1968*

Subject	Hours	Subject	Hours
Semester I		**Semester II**	
Algebra	6	Differential calculus	6
Geometry and trigonometry	5	Analytic geometry	5
Methodology	2	Physics I	6
Descriptive geometry I	4	Descriptive geometry II	4
Drawing I	4	Drawing II	4
English I (as needed)	5	English II	5
Religious culture I	1	Religious culture II	1
Semester III		**Semester IV**	
Integral calculus	6	Differential equations	4
Vector analysis	3	Physics III	6
Physics II	6	Mechanics I	6
Physical chemistry	3	Hydraulics	4
Topography I	6	Topography II	6
Spherical trigonometry and cosmography	3	Astronomy and geodesy	4
Humanities I	3	Humanities II	3
Religious culture III	1	Religious culture IV	1
Semester V		**Semester VI**	
Special mathematics for engineers	4	Electricity	5
Mechanics II	4	Strength of materials II	5
Hydraulics II	4	Hydrology	3
Geology	4	Sanitary engineering I	5
Numerical calculus	3	Roads II	3
Strength of materials I	5	Soil mechanics I	6
Roads I	6	Statistics	3
Religious culture V	1	Religious culture VI	1
Semester VII		**Semester VIII**	
Electro-technics I	5	Thermo-dynamics I	4
Structure theory I	4	Electro-technics II	4
Mixtures	3	Structure theory II	3
Sanitary engineering II	5	Concrete structures I	5
Railroads and airports	4	Sanitary engineering III	5
Soil mechanics II	6	Pavements	6
Accounting	3	Economics	3
Religious culture VII	1	Religious culture VIII	1
Semester IX		**Semester X**	
Thermo-dynamics II	4	Machinery	4
Central stations I	4	Metal structures	5
Construction	4	Hydraulic structures II	5
Concrete structures II	5	Industrial relations	2
Bridges I	4	Central stations II	5
Hydraulic structures	5	Bridges II	4
Legal engineering	2	Industrial organization	2
Religious culture IX	1	Religious culture X	1

[1] Of 16 weeks.

SOURCE OF DATA: Universidad Javeriana. *Prospectus*. Bogotá: The University, n.d. p. 14.

There has been considerable effort in recent years to encourage the development of short programs of 1 to 3 years in business administration, interior design, physical therapy, topography, and similar fields. Although more than 4,400 students were enrolled in a wide variety of such programs in 1969, their growth was less rapid than had been hoped. This was due not only to the greater prestige of established degree programs but also to the tendency of professionals to view paraprofessionals as competitors. A

Table 11.—*Number of theory and practice hours in each subject at the* facultad *of medicine, Javeriana University (Bogotá), by semester:*[1] *1966-68*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject	Hours		
	Total	Theory	Practice
First Year			
Cycle I—General Studies			
Semester I			
Total	*28*	*17*	*11*
General biology	4	2	2
General chemistry	6	3	3
General physics	7	3	4
Mathematics	3	3	.....
English	5	5	.....
Medical orientation	3	1	2
Semester II			
Total	*30*	*19*	*11*
General biology	4	2	2
General chemistry	6	3	3
General physics	7	3	4
Mathematics	3	3	.....
English	5	5	.....
Medical orientation	3	1	2
Religious culture	2	2	.....
Second Year			
Cycle II—Basic Medical Sciences			
Semester III			
Total	*30*	*13*	*17*
Anatomy	18	6	12
Histology and embryology	8	4	4
Scientific methodology	2	1	1
Religious culture	2	2	.....
Semester IV			
Total	*28*	*16*	*12*
Physiology I	9	5	4
Biochemistry	12	6	6
Statistics	4	2	2
General psychology	3	3	.....

Subject	Hours		
	Total	Theory	Practice
Third Year **Cycle II—Basic Medical Sciences**			
Semester V			
Total	*29*	*13*	*16*
Physiology II	9	5	4
Microbiology	16	6	10
Pathology I	4	2	2
Semester VI			
Total	*27*	*16*	*11*
Pathology II	11	5	6
Pharmacology	9	5	4
Social anthropology	2	1	1
Medical psychology	3	3	.....
Religious culture	2	2	.....
Fourth Year **Cycle III—Clinical Sciences**			
Part I (Semester VII)			
Total	*36*	*21*	*15*
Medicine I, semeiology	30	15	15
Psychopathology	2	2	.....
Contemporary image of man	2	2	.....
Religious culture	2	2	.....
Part II (Semester VII and VIII)			
Total	*36*	*16*	*20*
Medicine I	30	10	20
Psychopathology	2	2	.....
Contemporary image of man	2	2	.....
Religious culture	2	2	.....
Part III (Semester VIII)			
Total	*34*	*9*	*25*
Pediatrics	30	5	25
Psychopathology	2	2	.....
Contemporary image of man	2	2	.....

Subject	Hours		
	Total	Theory	Practice
Fifth Year **Cycle III—Clinical Sciences**			
Semester IX			
Total	*36*	*4*	*32*
Medicine II	30		30
Legal medicine	4	2	2
Medical anthropology	2	2	
Semester X			
Total	*72*	*22*	*50*
Preventive medicine	34	9	25
Psychiatry	34	9	25
General sociology I	2	2	
Medical ethics I	2	2	
Sixth Year **Cycle III—Clinical Sciences**			
Semester XI			
Total	*34*	*9*	*25*
Surgery and specializations	30	5	25
General sociology II	2	2	0
Medical ethics II	2	2	
Semester XII			
Total	*32*	*7*	*25*
Gynecology and obstetrics	30	5	25
Medical sociology	2	2	
Seventh Year **Cycle IV—Rotating Internship**			
(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)

[1] The 4th year is divided into three periods: the 1st period comprises part of semester VII; the 2d, the remaining part of semester VII and part of semester VIII; the 3d, the remaining part of semester VIII. The 7th year is divided only by the varying periods of internship spent in different hospital departments.

[2] Two to 2½ months are spent in each of the following hospital services: (1) internal medicine, (2) pediatrics, (3) surgery and specializations, and (4) gynecology and obstetrics; 2 months are spent in the emergency service; 1½ months in an optional service; and ½ month on special interests.

SOURCE OF DATA: Universidad Javeriana. *Boletín*. Bogotá: Facultad de Medicina, 1966–68. pp. 57–63.

clear distinction between their respective roles is vital if short courses are to thrive and provide the needed paraprofessionals.[28]

Postgraduate Programs

Postgraduate education in Colombia is a recent development. Postgraduate courses given by Colombian universities fall into two categories—those which give the right to an academic degree, and those which accredit

[28] Augusto Franco A. and Carlos José Miranda Melo. "Una Introducción a la Problemática de las Carreras Cortas Universitarias," *Crónica Universitaria*. No. 10, Trimester 2, 1968. p. 12.

Table 12.—*Number of credits in each subject of the suggested 4-year curriculum at the* facultad *of economics, University of Los Andes (Bogotá), by semester: 1967*

Subject	Credits
Semester I	
Principles of economics	4
Fundamentals of accounting	3
General mathematics: logic	4
Greek culture	3
History of Colombia I	2
English (or elective)	3
Semester II	
Fundamentals of statistics	3
General business accounting	3
General mathematics	4
Humanities elective	3
History of Colombia II	2
English (or elective)	3
Semester III	
Basic microeconomics	3
Elements of calculus	4
Introduction to political science	3
Sociohumanistic elective	3
Spanish I	3
English (or elective)	3
Semester IV	
Basic microeconomics	4
Economics of engineering	3
Introduction to anthropology *or* Social psychology I	2
Sociohumanistic elective	2
Spanish II	3
English (or elective)	3
Semester V	
Digital programming	2
Applied quantitative analysis	4
Structure of the economy	2
Intermediate microeconomics	4
Money, banking, and monetary theory	3
Elective	3
Semester VI	
Probability and inference	4
Intermediate microeconomics	4
Public finance and fiscal policy	3
Theory of international commerce	3
Principles of economic development	3
Elective	2
Semester VII	
Correlation and regression	4
Comparative economic history *or* Comparative economic systems	3
International economic policy	3
Theories of economic development	3
Political economy *or* Colombian political economy	3
Elective	2
Semester VIII	
Labor economics	3
Economic theories	3
Elements of econometrics	4
Pre-research seminar	2
Electives	6

SOURCE OF DATA: Universidad de los Andes. *Programa de Estudios*. Bogotá: Facultad de Economía, 1967. pp. 23–24 and 27–28.

course attendance by a certificate. Javeriana University, the National Pedagogical University, and the Universities of Antioquia, Caldas, Cartagena, Cauca, Los Andes, and Valle now offer dozens of graduate courses which lead to the degree of *especializado* or *magister*. Some of the largest enrollments are in medical specialties.

Research

The function of research, usually a part of higher education, has been underdeveloped because of lack of personnel trained in research techniques and the limited funds available for such efforts. However, in November 1968, the Colombian Fund for Scientific Research and Special Projects "Francisco José de Caldas" (COLCIENCIAS) was created as a Ministry of National Education dependency. Its function is to provide the general services required by national scientific and technological research. In 1969 it had sponsored seminars, begun to structure scientific development policy, and initiated inventories of scientific personnel, resources, and similar activities. In 1969 ICFES transferred 3 million pesos to COLCIENCIAS for scientific studies. Research efforts have been most prominent at the Industrial University of Santander, National University, and the Universities of Los Andes, Antioquia, and Valle. Their major work is in the areas of agricultural resources, architecture and construction, economics and sociology, health and nutrition, literature and history, market and technical research, and technology. In addition, National University and the University of Valle together have produced over 100 publications, including books and monographs.

Specialized Institutes

Some of the most important research or training efforts have been conducted by autonomous institutes with very few university ties. These include the Bank of the Republic, the Caro y Cuervo Institute, the Colombian Institute of Anthropology, the Colombo-American Linguistic Institute, the Higher School of Public Administration, and the Institute of Technological Research.

The following examples illustrate the work of some of these institutes: [29]

The Higher School of Public Administration (*ESAP*)—Organized as an autonomous, university-level institute in 1958, its main purpose is to train public administrators. In addition to its regular courses, it has offered since 1963 the *magister* in Public Administration and since 1965 the *magister* in Development Administration (Planning). Each of these courses is of 2 years' duration. There were 39 *egresados* (defined later in this chapter under section on Degrees) in the advanced public administration course of 1965. This program is subsidized by a 0.5 percent tax on the payroll of public employees.

Caro y Cuervo Institute (*Seminario Andrés Bello*)—Distinguished throughout Latin America, it offers a 1-year graduate course preparing specialists in Latin American philology and linguistics. Of the 411 *egresados* conferred between 1958 and 1965, 250 were to Colombians.

The Colombo-American Linguistic Institute (*ILCA*)—Created in 1962, it

[29] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). op. cit. pp. 71 and 73.

provides 6-month and 1-year graduate courses in Bogotá and other cities in English-language proficiency. In 1965, 665 specialists were enrolled.

University Extension

A very recent development in Colombian education, the university extension program takes four forms—professional courses, general education courses, technical assistance services, and community action programs. In 1966, National University offered 73 courses in agriculture, education, engineering, fine arts, and law. Students had to register in the University to take these courses. In the same year, the University of Valle offered 37 courses (varying in length from 2 to 14 weeks) in education, engineering, humanities, and medicine. The Pontifica Bolivariana University conducted 12 courses in architecture and engineering and six other universities offered similar programs. Fourteen universities offering extension programs reported that about 54 percent of these programs were in engineering, 10 percent in medicine, and 9 percent in education. Ninety-eight percent of the courses were given during the day to a total of 1,615 persons; the average course length was 12 weeks.[30]

For the most part, the Colombian university still has not taken a very active interest in community problems. Students leave the university and join their professional alumni group without much interest in employing their knowledge to benefit the general public. There are some noteworthy exceptions. For example, a 1962 decree requires medical students to work in assigned villages around the country for 2 years. Similarly, the Rockefeller Foundation sponsors a program at the University of Valle Medical School which has as one of its main goals (aside from teaching good medicine) to make a student aware of the special environmental problems he will confront in his Colombian medical practice. In this program, each freshman student is assigned to a family. By the end of his 4th year, he is able to function effectively as their family physician. When he graduates, he serves for several months in a rural health center near Cali, where he treats patients and helps to do research in preventive medicine and public health.[31]

Degrees

Any officially recognized university regulated by ICFES has the right to grant the first professional degree, of which there are many. In length of studies, the degree of *doctor* usually indicates eight to 12 semesters (4 to 6 years) of postsecondary studies; *licenciado*, eight semesters (4 years) especially in teaching and the social sciences; and *profesional*, 10 to 12 semesters (5 to 6 years).

In recent years postgraduate studies have been introduced which make it possible for a *doctor* in medicine to work toward the postgraduate degree of *especializado* or for degree recipients in other fields to work toward a *magister* (usually requiring two semesters) or similar advanced degree.

Standardization

Great differences in quality exist between programs leading to the same degree in different universities. Colombian educators recognize the need to

[30] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Extensión Universitaria y Otros Servicios a la Comunidad.* Bogotá: 1967. p. 2.
[31] Pat M. Holt. *Colombia Today—and Tomorrow.* New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964. p. 169.

standardize degrees so that it is clear exactly what each represents.[32] Efforts at standardization have been successful among institutions preparing physicians and dentists due to the concern shown by the respective professional associations and their success at devising effective licensing procedures. One source of difficulty has been the prevailing notion that a university degree assures the same quality and sense of responsibility that a license does. This has not always proved true.[33]

Shorter Programs

There is general agreement that more programs are needed that require fewer years of study and offer lesser degrees. Only about one-fifth of all degrees granted in 1968 were for programs of less than 4 years' duration, and most of the graduates were women. The limited appeal of these programs lies in the fact that the degrees to which they lead usually confer less prestige.

By the post-Independence period, lawyers and doctors of medicine had the highest social reputation. For access to good positions, the social prestige which those degrees conferred seemed more important than the skills required. Today this same kind of social prestige is also accorded an engineering or any foreign degree.[34]

The *Egresado*

A unique aspect of Colombian university degrees is seen in the pseudo-title *egresado*. Seventy-five percent of the students who finish their course work for a degree do not complete their theses and/or the comprehensive examinations. They are recognized de facto as *egresados*. Many universities make little distinction in hiring professors between a person holding the full degree and one with the *egresado*. Students who complete all degree requirements for a doctorate are usually those who wish to pursue advanced study abroad, for which a legal degree is generally required.[35] Since no statutes exist for some professions, *egresados* may practice them without the corresponding degree.[36]

A percentage comparison of graduates and *egresados* between 1920 and 1962 shows that educational sciences had the largest proportion of graduates—96.6 percent, and the social sciences had the lowest proportion of graduates—46.5 percent.[37] In many important respects, however, *egresados* have completed the most essential elements of a degree program.

Instruction and Promotion

Instruction Methods

University teaching emphasizes three things—theory, long class hours, and memorizing information. As a result, the student's attitude inclines toward passive learning rather than creative or critical thinking. He tends to regard his studies largely as an obstacle course leading to graduation.[38]

[32] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación* . . . op. cit. p. 45.
[33] M. F. W. Pollack. *Admission, Retention, and Articulation of Curricula in Colombian Higher Education.* Bogotá: University of California Advisory Mission, Colombian Higher Education Project, 1967. pp. 20–21.
[34] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación* . . . . op. cit. pp. 38–39.
[35] John M. Hunter. *Emerging Colombia.* Washington: Public Affairs Press, 1962. p. 55.
[36] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). op. cit. p. 48.
[37] Ibid. p. 59.
[38] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación* . . . op. cit. pp. 36–37.

Students are accustomed to learning more from the professor's lecture than from textbooks. Professors expect the students to work hard, as long class hours with compulsory attendance assure that they will. Consequently, 84.3 percent of National University students in 1967 had no outside employment, in spite of the fact that a majority had limited financial resources.[39]

Class schedules requiring as much as 38 hours of attendance weekly are not unusual. In one university, even 3d year students were required to attend class for 36 hours per week.[40] During the second semester of 1966 at National University, 43.2 percent of the students attended classes for 30 *or more* hours weekly; another 45.7 percent were in class between 20 and 29 hours per week. Only 1.5 percent of those taking courses were enrolled in fewer than 10 hours of class weekly.[41] As a result, many students are continually listening to lectures, and of necessity doing little independent study or class preparation.

Not only are heavy class schedules traditional in secondary and higher education, but it is also felt by the majority of educators that the public would lack confidence in schooling which demanded fewer class hours. Another argument frequently cited in support of so much classwork is that since libraries are generally inadequate and books expensive, it is unreasonable to expect students to do much outside the classroom. Recent changes in a number of secondary and higher education programs, however, have not only moved in the direction of fewer formal classes, but have also allocated more money for library resources and teacher salaries.

Students in the same *facultad* generally attend classes together all day, with a 2-hour lunch break. Once a student is enrolled in a *facultad* the vertical orientation of the curriculum seldom allows him to shop around and sample other fields outside his specialty. In many of the advanced courses, class enrollment is often as low as five or 10 students. This is due partly to small entering classes, but more frequently it reflects the high dropout rate. Many *facultades* operate with too few students to offer any electives, a situation which a number of universities have taken steps to correct.

Students usually study from textbooks and lecture notes. University libraries are generally decentralized and/or confined to a particular specialized *facultad*. Textbooks in technical and scientific areas are usually translations of foreign sources, and many are used in the original English. In economics, for example, a great many of the textbook materials deal with U.S. or European conditions, and therefore tend to be largely irrelevant to Colombian circumstances. These conditions, however, are gradually being improved.

Until quite recently, university libraries were considered relatively unimportant as instructional devices, since it was assumed that students learned everything either from their lectures, from mimeographed notes, or from some well-known handbook. In a few institutions this situation has changed as a result of improvement in library facilities. Bibliographies and books, however, are still difficult to acquire and remain relatively

[39] Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Censo de Estudiantes, Primer Semestre, 1967*. Bogotá: Oficina de Planeación de la Rectoría, 1967. I:62. Of the students' parents, 56.3 percent had a monthly income of less than 2,100 pesos. Ibid. p. 76.
[40] Hunter. op. cit. p. 57.
[41] Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Censo de Estudiantes*. . . . op. cit. p. 48.

inaccessible to many students. In addition, librarians in all but a few institutions are very poorly trained. A study of 10 leading Colombian universities showed an average library collection of 6.6 books per student enrolled.[42]

Promotion

Policies differ from one university to another and even from one *facultad* to another, but usually a student must pass all his subjects in order to advance to the next year's work. In order to make this easier, provision is made for reexamination (*habilitación*). If the student still does not pass, he is dismissed, although in some *facultades* he may repeat the entire year's work. (An exception may be made when a student fails a course that is considered unimportant.) A survey of regular students at National University (excluding newly enrolled undergraduates) showed that 40.4 percent had never failed a subject at the University, but that 33.1 percent had failed three or more courses. In fact, nearly one-third of the latter group had failed eight or more courses.[43]

A student may transfer from one university to another only when the ICFES approves and when he had entered his previous university with a *bachillerato* diploma or equivalent preparation for secondary teaching. Transfer is extremely difficult and therefore relatively rare. For example, a law student, upon completing his 1st year, cannot ordinarily transfer courses earned to an economics *facultad*, even in the same university, because none of the courses taught in the law *facultad* are acceptable in the 1st-year economics curriculum. Moreover, if he wants to transfer to a law *facultad* in another Colombian university, he will find that the courses he has completed may or may not be a part of the 1st-year curriculum at the new university. Rather than start again, most students in this situation simply drop out. There does exist, however, some modest provision for a student to take special examinations to demonstrate proficiency attained in another facultad.[44]

Students

Admission Requirements

University admissions are usually based on knowledge and aptitude tests. The use of such standardized tests had become widespread by August 1969 when 23,241 6th-year secondary students took such tests to qualify for admission to over 20 universities. The tests made and standardized by the National Testing Service (a dependency of ICFES) are administered without charge. Five major universities, however, have been giving their own versions of such tests for several years. Secondary grades, teachers' recommendations, personality tests, and personal interviews are also sometimes used.

Standards vary considerably from one institution to another but very efficient admissions offices are now functioning in the larger universities. The Colombian Association of Universities reports that admission applications are approximately double the places available. The number of

[42] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación* . . . . op. cit. pp. 54–55.
[43] Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Censo de Estudiantes*. . . . op. cit. p. 42.
[44] Pollack. op. cit. p. 12.

applications is misleading, however, because students apply for admission to more than one *facultad*.

Of 10,146 students examined for admission to National University in 1967, only about 28 percent were accepted. Of this figure, 91 percent had taken the traditional secondary *bachilierato*.[45] Nearly 38 percent had no relatives who had ever graduated from a university, and over 54 percent came from families with six or more children.

Social Origins

University students generally come from upper- and middle-class families. Their secondary schools, however, tend to represent particular social classes. For example, students from private schools usually are from upper-class families, and those from public schools usually are from middle- or even lower-class families. A survey found that nearly 11 percent of all university students interviewed came from families of the lower or lower-middle class—unemployed parents, farmers with an income of about $60 monthly, or unskilled or semiskilled workers with even lower incomes. The following excerpts from this survey show the percentages of the students interviewed at selected universities who were from each social class:[46]

	National University	University of Los Andes	Javeriana University	Free University
Total	*100.0*	*100.0*	*100.0**	*100.0*
Upper	6.7	17.5	35.8	None
Upper-middle	7.6	32.5	20.8	1.7
Middle	80.3	47.5	37.7	73.3
Lower or lower-middle	5.4	2.5	1.9	25.0

*Actual percentages total only 96.2. Source did not explain.

The survey suggests significant social differences in the clientele of the various institutions.

In general, although university students are receiving more education than did their older brothers or other members of their family, they still represent those upper social levels which have always tended to participate in higher education.[47]

Student Services

Only about a dozen of Colombia's universities provide living facilities for any students. ICFES, however, provides student and teacher drug service, making drugs available at a 40 percent discount. In addition, National University provides medical and dental service. Books and reference works are available at discounts of up to 25 percent.[48]

All universities have a number of political and academic associations (often organized by the students themselves), and almost all have theater

[45] Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Censo de Aspirantes a Ingreso, Primer Semestre, 1967*. Bogotá: Oficina de Planeación de la Rectoría, 1967. pp. 8, 15, 23, and 28.

[46] Robert C. Williamson. *El Estudiante Colombiana y sus Actitudes*. Bogotá: Universidad Nacional, Monografías Sociológicas. No. 13, 1962. pp. 65–66. The number of students interviewed at each university was as follows: *National*—610; *Los Andes*—42; *Javeriana*—54; *Libre*—63.

[47] Germán Rama. "Origen Social de la Población Universitaria," *UN* (Universidad Nacional). No. 3, p. 155, April-August, 1969. *and* Rodrigo Parra S., "Clases Sociales y Educación en el Desarrollo de Colombia," *UN* (Universidad Nacional). 3: 181, April-August, 1969.

[48] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 220–21.

and choral groups. In 1966 the first university theater festival was held, with 21 universities participating. The scope of physical education and athletics is limited but growing. Peace Corps teachers have provided a stimulus to existing programs, both on the university and secondary levels. At National University, for example, approximately one student in four participates in some kind of physical sport each month.

University Teachers

The typical university teacher is a highly capable and respected professional who accepts his position more for prestige than for money. He usually continues his private profession or employment, and thus may neglect his teaching responsibilities. In social science *facultades*, he has a tendency to become an encyclopedist—a bookish eminence who impresses students but has little firsthand knowledge of the matters he discusses. In several universities, however, this situation has changed rapidly in favor of more empirical scholarship.[49]

A university teacher usually does no university-related research nor does he produce any scholarly publications, unless these are the primary reasons for his appointment. Going to the university only to give his lectures, he is rarely available to students. Nevertheless, most of these so-called taxi professors are dedicated to doing the best job possible within the system's limitations.

Professional Ranks

Unfortunately, no uniform standards now exist in selecting university professors. Furthermore, there is a wide variety of titles used to designate the various teaching ranks, depending upon the university. A typical institution will have from three to five distinct ranks. Of 13 universities, the number using various ranks (given by approximate order of importance) are as follows: [50]

Profesor titular	7	Asistente maestro lector	1
Profesor	6	Asistente agregado	1
Asociado	9	Instructor	8
Asociado agregado	2	Instructor becario	1
Asociado ordinario	2	Instructor residente	1
		Instructor lector	1
Asistente	7	Instructor auxiliar de cátedra	2
Asistente auxiliar	3	Instructor ocasional	1
Asistente y asociado	1		

Many more ranks exist. At National University, for example, there are *profesores especiales*, *instructores asociados*, *instructores asistentes*, and *expertos*, in addition to several already noted.

Full-Time and Part-Time

A distinguishing feature of Colombian universities is the large per-

[49] Fals Borda. op. cit. p. 204.
[50] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Estudio del Personal Docente y Administrativo*. Bogotá: 1966. p. 12. (Mimeograph)

centage of part-time university teachers. The number of teachers employed by various time categories for selected years were as follows: [51]

	1960		1965		1966		1968	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Total ..	*2,751*	*100.00*	*7,302*	*100.00*	*8,010*	*100.00*	*10,724*	*100.00*
Full-time.....	544	19.8	2,341	32.1	2,651	33.1	3,451	32.2
Half-time*.....	246	8.9	776	10.6	883	11.0	1,100	10.3
Hourly.....	1,961	71.3	4,185	57.3	4,476	55.9	4,872	45.4
Unspecified....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,301	12.1

*The actual number of half-time professors listed may be exaggerated, since one professor may have been teaching in several institutions and thus have been counted more than once.

As just indicated, there has been a considerable increase in the number (although not the percent) of full-time teachers employed in the past few years. Hourly teachers remain a preeminent factor in Colombian higher education even though they cost much more because they are paid more than a token honorarium for their services.

In addition to the categories used above, a further distinction must be made. Full-time (*tiempo completo*) means that a teacher may lecture in several institutions and also practice his profession. Another term, *dedicación exclusive*, is used to mean that a teacher works exclusively at a particular university. Of the 1,049 professors listed in major categories at National University in 1967, for example, 42.2 percent were *dedicación exclusive*, 9.9 percent were *tiempo completo*, 13.8 percent were half-time, and 32.7 percent were part-time.[52]

The term full-time needs further explanation. Used of a university professor or teacher, it does not mean that he concentrates his principal period of work on academic activities. A professorship is generally regarded more or less as an honorary degree by the one selected. It is frequently the high point of his career, and not the beginning of a period of dedicated service to a particular institution. In fact, it often becomes a stepping-stone to a high political, diplomatic, or administrative post. In the past, appointment to a professorship has often been made because of family affiliation rather than outstanding scholarly excellence.[53]

Although part-time teachers often fail to prepare their lectures adequately, they are not necessarily regarded as handicaps by ambitious students seeking to associate with men who have influential contact in the world of practical affairs. These teachers are especially useful to students eager to take advantage of the status and opportunities which a degree can confer; they are less appreciated by students who seek to develop a high level of professional competence.

Qualifications

The following tabulation shows the number and percent of university teachers that have attained various degrees: [54]

[51] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades, *Antecedentes* . . . op. cit. p. 30. *and* ICFES Worksheet tabulation. March 1970.
[52] Ibid.
[53] E. Wight Bakke. "Students on the March: The cases of Mexico and Colombia," *Sociology of Education*. 37: 217, Spring 1964.
[54] Universidad de Antioquia. *Estudios para Graduados en Educación* (Quinto Seminario de Facultades de Educación). Bogotá: Facultad de Educación, November 1969. p. 9. (Mimeograph)

	Number	Percent
Total	*8,918*	*100.0*
Licenciado	1,167	13.1
Engineer, doctor, or professional	5,459	61.2
Magister	721	8.1
Ph.D.*	121	1.3
No university degree	731	8.2
No data	719	8.1

*Not a Colombian degree.

The adequacy of professors in fulfilling their obligations was assessed as follows: In the physical and natural sciences, they were judged adequate by 53.0 percent of the students; in education, psychology, and sociology, by 70.1 percent; and in law and economics, by 41.9 percent.[55]

Salaries and Welfare

Salaries are considered by most university teachers to be supplements to other income. Efforts to reward particularly dedicated teachers have been hampered by bureaucratic conceptions which stress formal preparation and years of service. In 1966 the salaries of full-time professors ranged from 2,500 to 7,000 pesos per month, while the rate for an hourly professor (termed a *catedrático*) varied from 18 to 40 pesos per hour.[56] In none of the university regulations studied by the Colombian Association of Universities at that time were fringe benefits clearly specified except in the statement that professors are entitled to the same benefits established by Colombian labor legislation in regard to medical services, retirement, unemployment, vacations, and the like.

Problems

Student Dropouts

The high dropout rate in Colombian higher education may be seen from table 13, which shows 1968 enrollments by field of study for the 1st through the 7th year of higher education. One of the principal reasons for this high dropout rate is the curriculum's rigidity. Another reason is the student's lack of financial resources.

Several trends in higher education should soon mitigate this problem. Where the new credit system is in use, a student may withdraw at any time with credits to his account, thus encouraging him to complete his studies at a later date, or he might take 2- or 3-year intermediate courses which can be completed with more limited financial resources. Following the latter course of action, he would be certified for a lower level of professional competence, but could use his intermediate-level preparation in an auxiliary professional role. Until recently, these partially qualified persons received no public recognition for their study, and their skills were consequently lost to society. Sponsorship of such intermediate-level programs by more universities would give them an attractive status.

[55] Williamson. op. cit. p. 49.
[56] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación* . . . . op. cit. p. 50. The exchange rate at the end of 1966 was 16.30 pesos to the dollar.

Table 13.—*Number of university students in each higher education subject area, by course year: 1968*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject area	Total	Year							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	No data
Total	*62,239*	*24,404*	*14,103*	*9,776*	*7,325*	*4,151*	*731*	*161*	*1,588*
Administration and economics	8,854	3,862	2,153	1,246	925	615	53	.....	.....
Agriculture and related fields	4,109	1,152	956	700	635	666	.....	.....	.....
Fine arts	4,023	1,050	771	607	381	278	72	.....	864
Physical and natural sciences	1,812	613	575	354	142	128	.....	.....	.....
Medical sciences	6,744	1,929	1,524	1,277	843	396	327	161	287
Social sciences	2,730	1,189	602	496	388	53	2	.....	.....
Law	6,480	2,022	1,479	1,161	1,132	686	.....	.....	.....
Education	6,803	2,222	2,010	1,390	1,120	61	.....	.....	.....
Humanities	1,843	1,086	412	209	121	15	.....	.....	.....
Engineering and related fields	14,958	5,920	3,534	2,336	1,638	1,253	277	.....	.....
Unspecified [1]	3,883	3,359	87	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	437

[1] Unspecified students are enrolled mainly in arts and sciences or in general studies.

SOURCE OF DATA: Asociación Colombiana de Universidades and Fondo Universitaria Nacional. *Estadísticas de la Educación Superior en Colombia.* Bogotá: División de Planeación, 1969. p. 6.

Personality and ability testing are being increasingly employed in the larger universities to divert students from fields in which they are not likely to be successful and to select more carefully those students who can succeed in a particular field. At National University, student dropout rates in the field of medicine went down in response to two very fundamental changes—more careful admission procedures and an increased percentage of full-time teachers.[57]

Student Activism

Political Advantage.—Why are some university students politically active? Ambitious young people all over the world like to stand out as leaders among their peers. There are special advantages to campus leadership. One may attract the attention of politicians, and this could be the prelude to a political career. For example, former President Carlos Lleras Restrepo was among the delegates to the 1928 student congress.

Because Colombia does not have a well-developed nonpolitical civil service, political maneuvering is involved in almost any government job. Those who have sharpened their political skills have a better chance for jobs both in government and in the professions. Hence, registration in a university and participation in student politics may be the most desirable route for entering political life.[58] Unfortunately, public universities have inherited some of the defects of their parent governments. Administrators are frequently political appointees and political changes often affect even the least important teacher if he holds an unpopular view.[59]

[57] José Felix Patiño Restrepo. *La Reforma de la Universidad Nacional.* Bogotá: Informe del Rector, 1966. II:61.

[58] Robert H. Dix. *Colombia: The Political Dimensions of Change.* New Haven: Yale University Press, 1967. pp. 345 and 203.

[59] Hunter. op. cit. p. 69.

If a student does not agree with the governing elite and does not have personal influence among its members, then his chief hope of action has been to promote a confrontation with the decisionmakers by a public demonstration. Most student demonstrations share a resistance to circumstances in which someone else has made a decision about a matter in which they believe they should have had a voice. A prominent Colombian professor, Jaime Sanín Echeverri, has said: "The university should not be like the state wants it to be; rather the state should be like the university wants it to be." On the other hand, the university has been greatly criticized for producing professionals who act only from a spirit of selfish individualism.[60]

Students often receive attention from higher authorities. Public officials have tended to see the university's autonomy as a useful symbol of their hands-off policy; and have been aware that university activists possess "spark potential"—they can convert a public demonstration into a political disaster if it turns against a political regime they like. In general, no other minority group in the country has such a liberal reputation as university students.[61] Opportunities to express student idealism are sometimes so limited, especially in public universities, that students find a satisfying outlet in demonstrations related to some social reform objective; or they may participate because the public expects students to be able to do something about obstacles to justice and human welfare; or because they feel a sentimental identification with the underprivileged.

Historical Development.—Student activism in Colombia was less highly developed than in many other Latin American countries until 1964, although as early as the 1920's the Federation of Colombian Students was granted the right to represent students before the education committees of Congress, a practice which has continued to this day.[62] Even the university reform law promulgated in 1935 was not a direct result of student pressure. What might then have become a revolution was prevented by the oligarchy's capacity to diminish its image of intransigence and inflexibility.[63]

Colombian students have less representation in university government than have students of any other Latin American country. Partly because of this, student political organizations have been less responsive to the mass of students, and correspondingly more easily manipulated by their leaders. This has resulted in a general lack of open and competitive student party structure, particularly in recent years. The present National Federation of University Students (FUN), founded in 1963, is reported to lack legitimacy among a large proportion of the students, and seems to be dominated by leftist leaders of Maoist or Castroite persuasion.[64]

In 1964, to counteract FUN, students from several universities founded the Confederation of University Students (CEU) with the stated objective of promoting student interests without ulterior political aims. Their following, however, is not as great as that of FUN.[65] Colombian students

[60] Three letters to the editor in *El Tiempo*, January 27, 1968.
[61] Bakke, op. cit. pp. 214, 224, and 226.
[62] Dix. op. cit. p. 347.
[63] Kenneth N. Walker. "A Comparison of the University Reform Movements in Argentina and Colombia," *Comparative Education Review*. 10:264 and 267, June, 1966.
[64] Ibid. pp. 264, 267 and 269–70.
[65] Dix. op. cit. p. 345.

apparently have been less ready to contest control by minority student groups for two reasons—first, because of the ephemeral nature of previous student federations and second, because of the lack of sufficient student participation in university government. Colombia's regionalism also seems to have contributed to the relative weakness of student activism in the past. Students so frequently attend a university in their provincial capital that National University in Bogotá may be less dominant than national universities in other countries and thus less a center for activism. However, as enrollments have grown, activism has increased.

Political Orientations.—Some evidence indicates that Colombian higher education does not necessarily increase democratic orientations. A study found that among National University students there is a decline in confidence in the democratic process, a decline which, interestingly enough, coincides with the class year in which students are most likely to drop out. The study also found that university education in general did not humanize through self-understanding. Among activist groups, leftist students were found to be the most hostile and the most alienated to the contemporary political scene.[66] A large number of students, including left-wing liberals and Communists, expressed dissatisfaction with all political parties. About half favored the Government coalition parties—official Liberals and Conservatives—and only 11 percent backed the Communists.[67] Not surprisingly, political activism is most pronounced among students in public universities.

Student activism may be directed not only toward reform of society at large but toward university authorities. The former kind occurs when students disagree with public policy or the activities of foreign interests, and it attracts the greatest attention abroad. The latter kind represents a greater proportion of student demonstrations in Colombia and elsewhere in Latin America but attracts less attention abroad. On campus the student strike against university authorities is considered a suitable means of solving academic problems and improving student welfare; it is less acceptable when it is designed to further political objectives or to increase university prestige. Students, therefore, are likely to see the strike more as a means to improve their educational circumstances than a political weapon.[68]

Some illustrations of strikes against university authorities may be cited. In 1960, the University of Atlántico was at a standstill for 77 days because of protest strikes against a rector who refused to resign. On another occasion, a major strike at National University forced the resignation of Mario Laserna, its able rector. The strike began with complaints about professors in the School of Architecture and spread ultimately to all *facultades* including those in Medellín and Palmira. In another instance, the University of Cartagena was interrupted for weeks over a dispute in assigning quarters to a 5th-year medical student. In August 1963, students at National University comandeered a number of public service buses and held them on the campus to protest increased student fares.

[66] Kenneth N. Walker. "Political Socialization in Universities," *Elites in Latin America* (Lipset and Aldo Solari, eds). New York: Oxford University Press, 1967. pp. 413–15, 418, and 425–26.
[67] Seymour Martin Lipset. "University Students and Politics in Under-developed Countries," *Comparative Education Review.* 10:152, June 1966.
[68] Bakke. op. cit. p. 223 *and* Williamson. op. cit. p. 19.

Recent Demonstrations.—In June 1964, the Minister of Education conceded the seriousness of student activism in Colombia and a committee of deans and professors promptly began to study its causes. The committee's central conclusion was that there exists a need for constant, informal, sincere communication between various segments of the university community. It was felt that liaison committees, a student newspaper and radio, and welfare and activity programs would be helpful.[69]

Nevertheless, a student strike called by FUN in May 1965 caused such violence that the Government declared a state of siege. In late October 1966, a motorcade carrying John D. Rockefeller III and President Carlos Lleras Restrepo was stoned by 200 leftist students. The two men were on their way to dedicate a new laboratory of veterinary medicine at National University. Contrary to the tradition of permissiveness which had prevailed previously, troops and tear gas were used to oust them from the dedication site. There were widespread indications of public approval of the President's action. The autonomy traditionally enjoyed by universities was abolished 3 days later on October 27, 1966.

The tradition of student activism took a new form in 1967. Troops took over the campus of National University on June 14 after 2 days of student rioting over increased bus fares. Over 1,500 soldiers and 40 tanks were used to restore order on the campus of 10,000 students; 577 rioters were arrested. The many student demonstrations during the first part of 1970 seem to have aimed at improving the quality of instruction, although the closing of National University by the *consejo superior* in response to this activism redefined the closing in more political terms in view of the impending national elections. The increasing politicalization of the event was illustrated by the fact that student organizations from virtually all of Bogotá's public and private universities participated in protest parades. Although a number of important academic reforms have been accomplished in recent years, political activism persists as a recurring feature of university life.

Emphasis on Specialization

The Colombian university regards its graduates as fully trained professionals because they have received their preparation in relatively specialized fields. New knowledge and new skills requirements, however, often make specialized talents obsolete, suggesting the need for more general professional preparation. The emphasis on specialization may be a greater problem in engineering and social sciences, where students need to be sensitive to the broader implications of technological and social change.

There is also a tendency for many members of the elite classes to prepare for professions without any serious intention of practicing them. The percent of persons trained in various professions who actually were practicing them in 1966 was as follows: [70]

[69] Daniel Henao Henao, et al. "Estudios sobre Conflictos," *Crónica Universitaria.* 1964. 1:1:21.
[70] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto . . . .* op. cit. 1:103–104.

	Percent		*Percent*
Agronomy	67.2	Medicine	91.3
Architecture	75.0	Petroleum engineering	89.8
Dentistry	90.4	Public accountancy	47.5
Geology	86.2	Sociology	37.4
Law	30.8	University teaching	63.7
Mathematics	29.6	Veterinary science	80.3

In 1963, the University of Los Andes, Antioquia, and Valle initiated a program of "interfaculty departmentalization" in order to reduce premature specialization and provide more broadly based education.

There is also a need to avoid excessively long periods of specialization. At present there are about four professionals who have taken long study programs to every one who has taken a short one. This relationship should be reversed if middle-level professionals are not to be supplanted by workers with inadequate qualifications. Universities have already become aware of this problem and are now establishing short technical programs.

Another characteristic of the university-trained professional is that he is not likely to serve in the locality where he is most needed. For example, 73.6 percent of all professionals find employment in large urban areas, and about one-third of the nation's doctors and dentists practice in Bogotá, which has only one-tenth of the nation's population. The method presently being used to increase the supply of doctors is to reduce the dropout rate in medical schools by more efficient counseling and selection techniques.

The need to increase the number of short programs is further illustrated by the ratio of doctors to nurses. Although nursing education was begun in 1916, there was still only one qualified nurse for every five doctors in 1966.[71]

University Proliferation

Although Colombia already has more universities than any other country its size, new institutions are frequently being established. Because this overexpansion has caused a decline in the quality of some institutions, it is the principal problem of Colombian higher education. There is considerable duplication of effort. For example, 30 of the more than 60 postsecondary institutions are located in Bogotá, giving it nine *facultades* of law, 11 of economics, and seven each of architecture, civil engineering, and education. Many Departments and municipal districts regard a new university as a symbol of local achievement, without considering the cost of establishing and adequately financing it. A basic national plan is needed to lead university development in more constructive directions.[72]

The Colombian higher education system is stratified both by differentiation according to students' social origin and also by the wide range of academic quality. The absence of a socially unified secondary school system has led to a heterogeneous and stratified university system. Colombian degrees possess widely varying social values depending upon the university which grants them. For example, the degree of *doctor* from a particular university may only be considered intermediate-level because of the university's lower social and academic status. The gradual with-

[71] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Antecedentes*. . . . op. cit. pp. 76–77 and 79.
[72] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación*. . . . op. cit. pp. 11 and 13.

drawal of the elite to private universities such as Javeriana University and the University of Los Andes has contributed to a decline in the prestige of a National University degree. This social compartmentalization not only greatly reduces competition between social groups but also increases and makes acceptable the differences in social level.[73]

Stratification by academic quality has increased because the policy of limiting enrollments in the large and established universities led to the growth of a number of private institutions of low academic quality. Such institutions are adapted to the needs of the poorly qualified or of those who may be qualified but cannot attend full time because they need to work during the day. The public universities have declined in their share of the total national enrollment.[74]

The Colombian Association of Universities has sought to create a national commission to coordinate the mixed university development, but the private universities, which are predominately Roman Catholic, object to the President's appointing of the governing commission on the grounds that the freedom of private institutions would be seriously compromised. The Church also objects to the Government's suggestion that geographical criteria be used to select the five outstanding nuclear universities, because practically this would mean that a Roman Catholic university would not be included. Although there are many distinguished Roman Catholic institutions, there is a public institution which is more preeminent in each of the respective national regions.

Criticisms and Reforms

Criticisms

Colombian university leaders have been the first to point out the weaknesses of their present system and the steps needed to improve it. The Institute for the Development of Higher Education supports the work of the Colombian Association of Universities in gathering relevant data, holding conferences, and persuading the nation's institutions to collaborate more effectively. The Colombian Association of Faculties of Medicine has identified some of the more persistent problems, which include the following:[75]

Administration

1. The university structure is weak. Rectors, deans, and university committees are frequently changed and consequently inexperienced. They lack sufficient knowledge of university structure and complex academic problems, resulting in poor leadership, particularly in crisis situations.

2. Communication between the administration, teachers, and students is ineffective.

3. Lines of responsibility are unknown or unclear, resulting in conflicts or neglect.

Teachers

1. University teachers are ineffective because only a relatively small percentage are dedicated to academic life. Their work affords few opportunities for im-

[73] Germán Rama. "Educación Universitaria y Mobilidad Social: Reclutamiento de Elites en Colombia.', Paper presented to the Latin American Congress of Sociology, Mexico City, November 21–25, 1969. p. 16. (Mimeograph)
[74] Ibid. pp. 25–26 and 33.
[75] Asociación Colombiana de Facultades de Medicina. "Crises de la Universidad Colombiana," *Crónica Universitaria.* 1:25–29, No. 1, August-September 1964.

provement, and their pay is so low they are forced to neglect their teaching and work elsewhere.

2. As a result of the above circumstances, many discontented teachers convey their feelings to their students.

3. For similar reasons, some teachers seek greater security and personal advantage by becoming leaders of student factions, a means of attaining promotions and rank.

4. Because there is a lack of communication between students and administrators, problems have grown out of all proportion to their significance by the time efforts are made to solve them. This communication lack is most acute in periods of crisis. A false sense of teacher authority prevents discussions which might result in solutions. Frequently, in times of crisis, both administration and teachers make promises which are very difficult for them to keep.

Students

1. Students do not identify with the university. They frequently act against it in an aggressive and irresponsible manner.

2. Although the majority of students may have good intentions, all too frequently they delegate their representation to small groups of student leaders and occasionally to nonuniversity persons.

3. Students seldom represent their own personal views but instead act as a group, frequently irresponsibly.

4. Given the youth of many students, there is a natural tendency to rebel against authority. Their demonstrations are often little more than part of the process of growing up, and this fact is insufficiently appreciated by the teachers and administration.

5. Outside persons often commit acts of violence. When students are unjustly blamed, they react aggressively. The result is an irreconcilable division between students, teachers, and administration.

Structural Aspects

1. The university lacks autonomy, because—
   (a) It receives inadequate financial support, which comes almost exclusively from the Government. (For this reason the Government sometimes intervenes in university affairs, even to a greater degree than the law permits.)
   (b) Nonuniversity bodies (such as the Church, commerce, or industry) are represented on university councils and administrative bodies. (Although enhancing communication with the nation, this situation can intervene in academic management of the institution.)

2. The balance of power between the administration and the student body is almost impossible to maintain because the former is relatively stable and the latter is essentially transient.

3. Compared with other public projects, such as highways, irrigation works, etc., the university receives relatively little support as an agency which could hasten national development.

4. Constructive forces in the community are weak and poorly organized, while the destructive forces are well-organized minorities often able to get their way.

Nonuniversity Influences

1. Political parties frequently try to place politically prominent persons in univers-

ity administrative positions. Usually these persons are unacquainted with university problems and lack the necessary scholarly outlook. The same effort is also made in filling less important positions.

2. There is some evidence that Communists also capitalize on the Colombian universities' weaknesses in order to agitate for their cause.

Another difficulty has been that many advanced 3d- and 4th-year courses have low enrollments. In 1966, for example, five different engineering *facultades* had an average 4th-year enrollment of only 11 students in each of five specialties.[76]

The transient nature of the university president (rector) also poses special difficulties, for he is frequently in office for only 2 or 3 years; in some universities he is only part time. Not only is long-range planning difficult under such circumstances, but the office is also more vulnerable to student and teacher agitation. The post is usually subject to political vagaries, and unqualified rectors are sometimes appointed. In addition, the rectorship may be so limited in its power that the talents of able rectors are often wasted. Administrative channels are often inadequately defined, and sometimes there are not even enough personnel present to implement the decisions that are made.[77]

Reforms

One positive change in recent years is that a student possessing the the technical *bachillerato* may have access to certain university programs once open only to graduates with a classical or general *bachillerato*.

Another change on the secondary level that will affect the higher education level is the introduction of the new National Institutes of Middle Education and the reformed secondary curriculum. Both seem likely to entice larger numbers of students, many of whom will probably choose intermediate university programs.[78]

In addition, conferences of university rectors in recent years have led to (1) introducing academic divisions of general studies, (2) grouping related disciplines in single administrative units, (3) creating shorter postgraduate programs, and (4) reevaluating degree programs.

Representative Universities

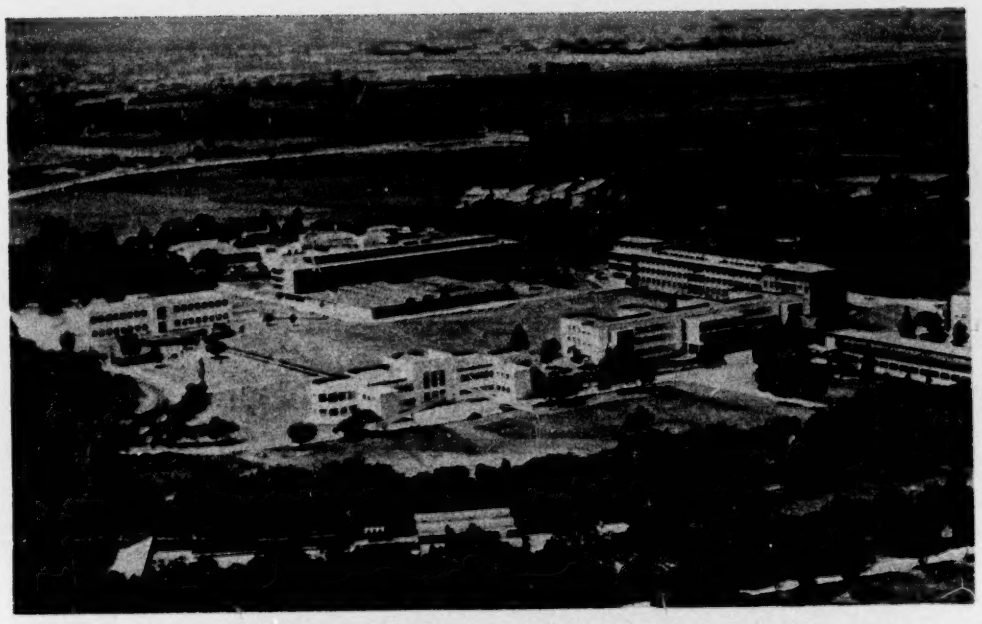
Colombia has many distinguished institutions of higher education, not only in the national capital but in other cities, such as Bucaramanga, Cali, Medellín, and Tunja. In an effort to convey an idea of the institutional variety which exists, selected features of a few of the most prestigious institutions will be described in somewhat greater detail.

National University

National University in Bogotá, a product of Law 66 of 1967, has grown in stature through the years. In 1969, it enrolled 11,237 students, of which 2,765 were at three branch campuses.[79]

In the 1930's, President Alfonso López referred to the universities as

[76] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación*. . . . op. cit. pp. 27–29.
[77] Ibid. pp. 22–23 and 25.
[78] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 279.
[79] ICFES worksheet tabulation. March 1970.



Scene at National University, Bogotá
—Courtesy of Colombia Information Service

"unrelated to Colombian problems and realities." In recognition of this situation, Congress approved Law 68 of 1935, which reorganized the various *facultades* of National University, granted it corporate autonomy, and financed the construction of a modern campus in suburban Bogotá.

Its various *facultades* now include the following fields: Agricultural sciences, agronomy, architecture, civil engineering, engineering, fine arts, health sciences, human sciences (anthropology, business administration, economics, education, geography, history, philology and languages, philosophy and humanities, psychology, and sociology and social work), law, mines, and sciences.

Unfortunately, there is not a general spirit of unity among these *facultades;* some very small ones in closely related subjects still have their own dean, secretary, and other assistants. Each *facultad* may have its own professor of psychology or foreign languages to teach introductory courses, although all now share the language and basic science staff. Integration of *facultades* at National University has been most fully carried out in the fields of agriculture, health, and science, but it is still very limited in law.

The higher University Council (*Consejo Superior Universitario*), National University's highest governmental organ, is composed of the following members:

1. The National Minister of Education, or his representative
2. The Minister of the Treasury (*Hacienda*), or his representative
3. The Dean, elected by the Academic Council
3. A university professor, elected by the other professors
4. A graduate of the University, who may be a professor, chosen by former students who are members of the governing boards of faculties or schools

5. A representative of the Roman Catholic Church, designated by the Archdiocese of Bogotá, who should be a professor at the University
6. Two representatives of the students, one elected by the Student Assembly from among its members and the other chosen by student representatives on the governing boards of the *facultades*
7. A representative of the national scholarly academies, chosen by the presidents of the respective academies
8. The rector, who shall have a voice on the Higher University Council, which elects him

The functions of the Council include: (1) Electing a rector (principal administrative officer) for a 3-year term, (2) electing deans of *facultades* and directors of schools and institutes for a period of 2 years, and (3) carrying out the regulations of the teachers, student organizations, and alumni, according to the laws which apply to the university. The Council is also responsible for confirming the appointments of teaching personnel.[80]

Several important changes have taken place in recent years. The 27 different *facultades* which were functioning in 1964 were reduced to 10 by 1967, while programs offered were increased from 32 to over 60. As duplication of effort decreased, so did costs and the necessity for additional construction. Surplus buildings have been converted into a central library, a museum of modern art, a museum of natural history, and a student center. There have been a number of other improvements as well.[81]

The University of Los Andes

The University of Los Andes was founded in 1948 in protest against certain traditions and political interference in higher education which had become disruptive factors in other Colombian universities. It is distinctive as a private institution affiliated neither with church nor state.

Los Andes has long sought to emulate the more effective forms of educational organization typical of U.S. higher education. Its program was originally designed to facilitate transfer to foreign institutions for advanced technical training. Its major *facultades*, which enrolled 2,452 students in 1969,[82] include architecture, arts and sciences, economics, engineering, fine arts, and philosophy and letters; it also has a graduate school of economics. Research is represented by a center for studies of economic development, a center for planning, urbanism, and esthetic investigation, and an electronic computing center. Its *facultad* of anthropology is regarded as one of the best of its kind in Latin America, and its *facultad* of engineering is well regarded for its effective instruction. It also offers postgraduate studies in engineering and microbiology.

A distinctive characteristic of Los Andes is its role in international exchanges. In 1966, for example, groups from Brandeis, California, Illinois, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Yale University visited the campus. Professional ties were established in several higher specialties in France, Germany, Holland, Italy, and the United States. In addition, Los

[80] Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Manual de Organización Docente.* Bogotá: Universidad Nacional, Oficina de Planeación, 1967. pp. 3–6.
[81] Patiño. op. cit. p. 36.
[82] ICFES worksheet tabulation. March 1970.

Andes has cooperative undertakings with six other Colombian universities, including night classes and special courses for labor and business leaders.

Although Los Andes has received important grants from private foundations, a relatively high tuition charge covered about 58 percent of its total costs in 1966; in addition, 134 scholarships were awarded to impecunious students. Good facilities combined with high tuition charges make it an attractive institution for the talented sons and daughters of the well-to-do.[83]

Like many other Colombian institutions for higher education, there are very stringent attendance rules. Students missing 10 percent of the classes during the first half of a given course will be suspended from the course. If a student misses 15 percent of his classes in the second half of the course, he is prohibited from taking his final examination.

One of the university's central problems is that donations have stimulated the development of programs which, when the assistance is withdrawn or used up, are frequently too costly to maintain. The university needs to reconsider its policy of accepting conditional gifts. In 1966 the Ford Foundation gave $732,000 to encourage a variety of programs, and the Rockefeller Foundation contributed $100,000 in the areas of biology and medicine. The University is represented in New York by the Los Andes Foundation.[84]

Javeriana University

Originally founded in 1622 and restored in 1932, the Jesuit-sponsored Javeriana University is the largest Roman Catholic institution in the country, enrolling 4,749 students in 1969.[85] It is also one of the most important universities in Bogotá. Its major *facultades* are architecture, canon law, civil engineering, civil law, dentistry, economics, education, electronic engineering, medicine, nursing, nutrition and dietetics, philosophy and letters, and social sciences. It also has *facultades* of arts, bacteriology and communication sciences, basic science, foreign languages, and microbiology. The University has its own 320-bed teaching hospital.

The Industrial University of Santander

Founded in 1947, the Industrial University of Santander had 2,199 students in 1969. It is located in Bucaramanga. One of the most distinguished of Colombia's public technical institutions, the University has *facultades* of chemical, civil, electrical, industrial, mechanical, metallurgical, and petroleum engineering, as well as divisions of basic science, health, sciences, humanities, and scientific research.

Other large institutions, their locations, and 1969 enrollments are as follows: [86]

[83] Ramón de Zubiria. *Informe del Rector al Consejo Directivo de la Universidad de los Andes*. Bogotá: May 24, 1967. pp. 22–23.
[84] Ibid. p. 23.
[85] ICFES worksheet tabulation. March 1970.
[86] Ibid.

Public	
National Pedagogical University (Bogotá)	953
Pedagogical and Technological University (Tunja)	1,136
University of Antioquia (Medellín)	6,304
University of Atlántico (Barranquilla)	1,968
University of Caldas (Manizales)	1,633
University of Cartagena (Cartagena)	1,724
University of Valle (Cali)	3,214
Private	
Free University (Bogotá/Barranquilla)	2,649
La Gran Colombia University (Bogotá)	3,391
Pontificia Bolivariana University (Medellín)	2,711
University Foundation of Bogotá "Jorge Tadeo Lozano" (Botogá)	3,049

10. Teachers and Teacher Education

Since an educational system is no better than the teachers who serve in it, their preparation and performance are more indicative of educational quality than any other factor. This chapter describes Colombia's elementary and secondary teachers—their preparation, their working conditions, and their problems.

Qualifications

Elementary Teachers

Elementary teachers are usually women, and in rural areas they are likely to possess very limited formal training, as table 14 indicates.

Cereté, in Córdova, offers a striking illustration of teacher qualifications in public rural elementary schools in 1966. Of 52 teachers, two had only 2 years of elementary education, three had 3 years, three had 4 years, 10 had 5 years and the remainder had some secondary or normal education, although only five actually had graduated.[1] Of course, urban elementary teachers are generally much better prepared. The extent to which advancement in teacher training has taken place nationally is indicated by the fact that the percentage of elementary teachers without a secondary or higher diploma declined from 64 percent in 1957 to 46 percent in 1965.

Another example of the qualifications of rural elementary teachers may be found in rural Aritama, where elementary teachers were usually natives of the village in which they taught. Their educational background typically consisted of 2 or 3 years of elementary schooling, followed occasionally by a short course at a so-called commercial school. To qualify for a teaching post, personal qualities, such as social status, party affiliation, and kinship were very important, completely overshadowing academic preparation. Every year there was considerable fear among teachers of being replaced by others with better connections. As a matter of fact, teachers were changed frequently, not only because every change in politics or in the personnel in the Departmental government influenced their positions, but also because there was a great deal of jealousy and friction among candidates. As a consequence, teachers there belonged to a local elite, and they enjoyed high social status. As members of prominent families they were very conscious of their Spanish ancestry. There was a general feeling that getting good schooling depended upon the supervision and guidance of

[1] Eugene A. Havens. *Education in Rural Colombia: An Investment in Human Resources*. Madison, Wis.: Land Tenure Center, University of Wisconsin, 1965. p. 7. (Mimeograph)

Table 14.—*Number of teachers in each type of elementary school, by highest educational preparation and by sex: 1966*

Educational preparation	Total	Public				Private			
		Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
		Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women
Total	*67,764*	*3,091*	*19,185*	*8,033*	*22,484*	*295*	*429*	*4,678*	*9,569*
Elementary Education									
Total	*4,158*	*257*	*3,213*	*99*	*432*	*15*	*28*	*21*	*93*
Secondary Education									
Total	*26,313*	*1,776*	*7,868*	*3,815*	*6,465*	*146*	*177*	*2,092*	*3,974*
Academic with *bachillerato* (6 years)	690	30	100	178	184	8	11	66	113
Academic with diploma (4 years)	5,982	328	777	1,139	1,222	48	51	1,086	1,331
——— without diploma	15,440	1,204	5,492	2,325	3,966	72	82	725	1,574
Technical with diploma	2,861	116	920	97	795	14	25	165	729
——— without diploma	1,340	98	579	76	298	4	8	50	227
Higher Education									
Total	*37,293*	*1,058*	*8,104*	*4,119*	*15,587*	*134*	*224*	*2,565*	*5,502*
University with diploma	785	20	32	56	41	36	5	357	238
——— without diploma	640	27	44	103	58	19	8	270	111
Pedagogical university with diploma	909	25	67	83	152	11	1	206	364
——— ——— without diploma	763	30	173	94	168	5	2	116	175
Normal school with diploma	15,706	228	1,278	2,416	8,086	26	94	1,042	2,536
——— ——— without diploma	18,490	728	6,510	1,367	7,082	37	114	574	2,078

SOURCE OF DATA: Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). "La Educación en Colombia," *Boletín Mensual de Estadística*. 219:88–103, June 1969.

women of upper-class background. Nevertheless, the customary method of appointing teachers caused considerable resentment.[2]

One should not conclude that such conditions prevail in schools administered by the Ministry of National Education, although the example above typifies a national problem on the Departmental level and partially explains the widespread use of poorly qualified elementary teachers, even when more capable individuals are available.

Secondary Teachers

As might be expected, secondary teachers have had more formal preparation, although nearly one-fifth lack diplomas from secondary or higher institutions of learning. Table 15 indicates the preparation they received in 1965 and 1966.

Accurate information on the number of secondary teachers is difficult to compile because many are teaching part time. In 1964 their hourly pay

[2] Gerardo and Alicia Reichel Dolmatoff. *The People of Aritama: The Cultural Personality of a Colombian Mestizo Village*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961. p. 117.

Table 15.—*Number of academic secondary school teachers by highest educational preparation: 1965 and 1966*

Educational preparation	1965	1966
Grand total	*19,527*	*21,332*
Secondary Education		
Total	*7,433*	*6,472*
Academic with diploma	4,954	4,356
——— without diploma	1,359	1,083
Technical with diploma	851	828
——— without diploma	269	205
Higher Education		
Total	*12,094*	*14,860*
University with diploma	3,138	3,430
——— without diploma	1,423	1,687
Pedagogical university with diploma	2,281	2,666
——— ——— without diploma	494	655
Normal school with diploma	4,062	5,530
——— ——— without diploma	696	892

SOURCE OF DATA: Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). "La Educación en Colombia," *Boletín Mensual de Estadística.* 219:135, June 1969.

ranged from 8 to 15 pesos per hour, depending upon their qualifications. Part-time teachers sometimes are able to earn more than full-time teachers by working in several schools, although the quality of instruction may suffer under this practice. University students also teach as a means of financing their studies.

Elementary Teacher Education

Normal Schools

Law 2 of 1870 authorized the establishment of public elementary education and gave aid to support normal schools in the capitals of the various Departments. Nine professors brought from Germany in 1871 became the first directors of the Departmental normal schools. Although Colombian counterparts were trained in their places, most of the Germans remained in Colombia for the rest of their lives. Despite frequent civil wars which have greatly weakened budgetary support for normal education, German pedagogical methods have continued to influence normal school procedures in Colombia.[3]

Normal education is designed to prepare graduates to teach elementary school. It consists of one 6-year cycle with a prerequisite of 5 years of elementary school. Professional training is given only in the last 2 years of secondary education; the first 4 years are essentially the same as those required for the classical *bachillerato* program.

In 1968 there were 239 normal schools, 154 public and 85 private. Although 40 percent of the institutions were coeducational, four out of

[3] Orlando Fals Borda. "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of Education in Colombia," in *The Caribbean: Contemporary Colombia* (A. Curtis Wilgus, ed.). Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962. p. 199.

every five students were female.[4] Nearly 100 incomplete (4-year) normal schools had changed their status since 1965 to regular secondary schools.

Many normal schools are boarding institutions. About one-fourth of the students in the public institutions receive full scholarships, while a somewhat smaller proportion in the private institutions are similarly aided.

In 1965, however, only about 1,600 of the 5,000 normal school graduates actually taught. This was due partly to the fact that persons with lesser qualifications who would accept less money were taking the available jobs, and partly to the fact that in some communities normal schools serve as substitutes for general secondary schools.[5] In fact, a large number were reclassified as general secondary schools in the late 1960's.

Admission.—In addition to meeting the requirement of 5 years of elementary schooling, candidates for admission to normal schools must take a test to determine their psychological fitness to teach. An interview may also be required. Moreover, confidential cumulative records must be kept on each student while he is in attendance.

Curriculum.—Table 16 shows the 2-year professional sequence in the normal school program. For the first 4 weeks of the 6th year (during the third semester) students have their first period of practicum. During these weeks there are no classes; students are placed in charge of duties related to conducting the demonstration school. Their responsibilities include administration of admission and makeup examinations, enrollment duties, pupil classification, organization of parent-teacher groups, and supervision of activities. Regular classes are then resumed. Students have their second practicum during the last 4 weeks of the last semester, during which they perform end-of-the-year activities which include administering final examinations, closing sessions, conducting review, inventorying supplies, keeping academic records, and planning work for the following year.

According to the Official Guide of the Ministry of National Education, student teaching is a continuous, highly individualized process, extending from specialized study of methods through direct observation and participation in school activities, and culminating with the teaching process itself. This process varies with individual student needs, and student teaching grades reflect performance in all of these areas, not merely teaching performance.[6]

Men's normal schools require a total of 81 class hours of agricultural sciences and 35 hours of family education. In women's normal schools the number of hours is reversed, with the emphasis on domestic science.

There is a promotion at the end of each semester. Students who fail three or more courses must make up the entire semester, although it is possible to take two makeup (*habilitación*) examinations. Failure rates are about 12 percent in public institutions and about 11 percent in private schools.[7] On a marking scale of five, a student must receive a grade of "3" or above. If he has failed to attend 10 percent or more of his classes or if any of his grades is lower than "2" he will not be permitted to take

[4] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *Censo de Establecimientos Educativos: 1968.* Bogotá: April 1970. pp. 30–32.
[5] Daniel Arango. *Informe del Ministro de Educación al Congreso Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1966. p. 39.
[6] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Programas de Educación para Normales.* Bogotá: Editorial Bedout, 1965. pp. 62–64.
[7] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *La Educación en Colombia, 1963–1964.* Bogotá: November 1966. p. 29. (Mimeograph)

Table 16.—*Number of hours in each subject of the normal school secondary course, professional cycle:*[1] *1965*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject	Semester			
	I [2]	II [2]	III [3]	IV [4]
Total	*39*	*39*	*39*	*39*
Agricultural science	.....	.....	2	3
Chemistry	.....	3	6	.....
Community project	.....	.....	4	4
Cooperative project	2	2	.....	.....
Domestic science	.....	.....	2	3
Drawing	1	1	.....	.....
Educational psychology	5	4	.....	.....
Educational sociology	3	3	.....	.....
Health education	.....	.....	2	4
Instructional aids	.....	2	2	.....
Integration into practice teaching	6	6	5	5
Library activities	1	1	.....	.....
Mathematics	3	2	.....	.....
Methods of teaching Spanish	.....	.....	3	5
Musical education	.....	.....	1	2
Philosophy and history of education	2	2	3	3
Physical education and recreation	.....	.....	2	2
Physics	4	3	.....	.....
Principles and techniques of education	6	4	.....	.....
Professional orientation seminar	2	.....	.....	.....
Religion	2	2	2	1
School administration	2	2	.....	.....
Seminar in Colombian educational problems	.....	2	.....	.....
Seminar in national socioeconomic problems	.....	.....	2	.....
Seminar in student teaching problems	.....	.....	.....	2
Social studies	.....	.....	3	5

[1] The 5th and 6th years of secondary education.

[2] Of 15 weeks.

[3] Of 15 weeks. Eleven weeks are spent on the subjects indicated below, and 4 weeks on student teaching.

[4] Of 16 weeks. Twelve weeks are spent on the subjects indicated below, and 4 weeks on student teaching.

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Programas de Educación para Normales*. Bogotá: Editorial Bedout, 1965. pp. 62–63.

the final examination. If a grade is lower than "2" on the final examination, previous grades will be ignored even if they are good, and the examination grade will become the final grade in the subject.[8]

Instructors.—The Ministry of National Education chooses all instructors for its own normal schools. Each must either (1) have an appropriate university degree in the area of education, (2) have completed appropriate higher education and had 4 years of teaching experience, or (3) be in the first category of the *escalafón* (classification registry) for secondary school teachers and give proof of superior professional ability. Numerous private Catholic normal schools train teachers for both public and private institutions.

Recommendations.—A report by Colombia to the Third Inter-American Meeting of Ministers of Education in 1963 called for a drastic reduction in the number of normal schools—a reform which has recently been put into effect. Although legislation calls for a 6-year curriculum, a substantial percentage of the normal schools had been operating on a 4-year program. Moreover, many of those in existence do little to serve the community in which they are located.

[8] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. op. cit. p. 21.

The First Pedagogical Congress (1966) recommended several changes in the normal school system. It called for a centralization of elementary teacher preparation in full-fledged normal schools with a year of rural teaching an indispensable requirement for a normal school diploma. The Congress also urged the development of night normal schools to more fully qualify inservice teachers. Finally, it recommended special courses on how to conduct a one-teacher, 5-year rural school.[9] Reforms in recent years have tended to correct these deficiencies.

Supervisors

The preparation of supervisors for elementary education is the responsibility of the National Pedagogical University and the Pilot Institute of Pamplona, although other courses are conducted occasionally. In recent years there appears to have been a surplus of trained supervisors. More precisely, this situation probably reflects a deficiency on the part of the educational system in adapting its procedures so that supervisors' training can be utilized effectively. As a consequence, many persons interested in supervision have directed their efforts to the area of educational planning, which commands more prestige.[10]

Inservice Education

The Division of Teacher Education (DICMA) is responsible for inservice improvement of elementary school teachers. In 1969, over 21,000 uncertified teachers were enrolled in its various programs—the only substitutes for study in approved secondary schools which are accepted for admission to or promotion on the *escalafón*.

Secondary Teacher Education

Ten of Colombia's universities are recognized for their secondary teacher preparation programs. There is no uniform plan, however, since each university establishes its own subject matter and degree requirements. The usual course of study is 4 years, with the only prerequisite being a secondary *bachillerato* or normal school diploma. The principal institutions responsible for this training are the pedagogical universities and the *facultades* of education in the regular universities. Graduates of non-university higher education institutions, as well as some of the higher professional university *facultades* may also qualify as secondary teachers.

In 1965, institutions dedicated to preparing secondary teachers produced 666 students who had completed their basic secondary teaching program—a substantial increase over the 262 produced in 1962. The 666 were distributed as follows:

Biology and chemistry	50
Health and physical education	11
Languages	43
Mathematics and physics	35
Pedagogy	379

[9] Primer Congreso Pedagógico Nacional. *Documento: Conclusiones Finales de Comisiones*. December 1966. p. 10. (Mimeograph)
[10] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia*. Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1964. p. 290. (Mimeograph)

Philosophy	106
Social studies	[11] 42

The best known of the secondary teacher training institutions is the Pedagogical University of Colombia. Founded in 1926, it was newly reformed in 1951, with an institution for men in Tunja and another for women in Bogotá. The Pedagogical and Technological University of Colombia at Tunja has three *facultades*—agronomy, education, and engineering. Its division of science serves all *facultades*, offering general courses during a student's 1st year. The division of humanities has a similar function.

A *bachillerato* or a normal school diploma is required for admission to the Tunja institution. After a year of general studies, students receive counseling and then select a major. Those who lack aptitude for teaching are advised to withdraw from teaching programs. The latter usually continue in one of the nonteaching fields of the University.

The University at Tunja has recently introduced a credit system. In a 10-semester program, major subjects normally account for about 90 credits, minor ones for 45 credits, and general education courses for 34 credits. Student teaching is performed for a semester in one of the 50 schools in the region.

The National Pedagogical University in Bogotá has offered a more traditional pattern of teacher preparation. Its *facultades* include biology and chemistry, mathematics and physics, philology and languages, physical education and health, psychology and educational sciences, and social sciences and economics. Decree 3153 of 1968 reorganized the University with features including increased employment of full-time teachers, improved student counseling, registration by subjects, and a semester calendar. It also created the Colombian Institute of Pedagogy (ICOLPE), with the aid of the French Mission, for the purpose of expanding the University's role in research related to national educational problems.

The Universities of Valle and Antioquia are also distinguished in teacher education.

Samples of the newer programs in secondary teacher preparation appear in tables 17 and 18.

The Classification System

Colombia's classification and advancement system, known as the *escalafón*, is an official register which identifies and rewards teachers in accordance with their level of formal preparation and years of experience. The *escalafón* is used to determine the rate of pay in Ministry of National Education schools, and to evaluate teachers in Departmental and private schools. Once a teacher is registered at a particular level, he cannot be downgraded.

Elementary Teachers

Some of the qualifications acceptable for the first and highest of the four levels of the National elementary *escalafón* are as follows: (1) graduates

[11] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. 1:83. (Mimeograph)

Table 17.—*Number of hours, code, and prerequisite code for each subject of the courses in pedagogy and educational administration and in social studies teaching at the* facultad *of education, National University (Bogotá), by semester: 1968*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject code and subject		Hours	Prerequisite subject code
Pedagogy and Educational Administration			
	Semester I		
44811	Writing techniques	3	.....
43111	Philosophy	3	.....
54106	General psychology I	4	.....
15119	Mathematics (algebra and trigonometry)	5	.....
48111	Pedagogy and methods I (*pedagogy y didáctica*)	3	.....
44121	English I	4	.....
	Semester II		
44812	Methodology of written work	.....	44811
43211	Philosophy II	3	43111
51130	Human biology	3	.....
44122	English II	4	44121
[illegible]112	Pedagogy and methods II	3	48111
[illegible]001	General sociology	3	.....
	Semester III		
45125	Developmental (*evolutiva*) psychology	3	45106
48115	History of education I	3	.....
48113	Special methods (*Didáctica especial*) I	3	48112
48127	Curriculum planning I	3	.....
48123	Statistics of education I	3	15118
44127	English III	4	44122
	Semester IV		
48116	History of education II	3	48115
48114	Special methods II	3	48113
44128	English IV	4	44127
48124	Educational statistics II	3	48123
48913	Audiovisual aids	3	48914
48146	Sociometrics	3	48123
	Semester V		
48121	Educational planning	3	48124
48145	Seminar	.....	.....
48126	Sociology of education	3	42001
48912	Educational psychology	3	45106
48132	Practice teaching I	3	48114
48125	Evaluation techniques	3	48124
	Semester VI		
48137	Comparative education	3	48115
48922	Educational administration	3	.....
48142	Philosophy of education I	3	48211
48133	Practice teaching II	3	48132
48136	Psychometry	4	48124
48148	Mental hygiene in education	3	.....
	Semester VII		
45202	Guidance (*Orientación profesional*) I	6	.....
48139	School organization	3	48922
48143	Philosophy of education II	3	48142
48128	Curriculum planning II	3	48127
48134	Practice teaching III	3	48133
48149	Human relations and ethics	3	.....
	Semester VIII		
45203	Guidance (*Orientación profesional*) II	6	45202
48141	School supervision	3	48139
48135	Practice teaching IV	3	48134
.....	Seminar (elective)	3	.....

Subject code and subject		Hours	Prerequisite subject code
Social Studies Teaching			
	Semester I		
44811	Writing techniques	3	
43111	Philosophy I	3	
42001	General sociology I	3	
15119	Mathematics (algebra and trigonometry)	5	
47010	Anthropology	3	
46900	Physical geography	3	
44121	English	4	
	Semester II		
43211	Philosophy II	3	43111
46444	Ancient history	3	
42015	General sociology II (elective)	3	42001
18914	Statistics	3	15118
46800	Physical geography II	3	46900
45106	General psychology	4	
44122	English	4	
	Semester III		
46324	History of Colombia I (16th — 18th centuries)	3	
46910	General regional geography I	3	
45125	Developmental (*evolutiva*) psychology	4	45106
48914	Pedagogy and methods	3	45106
46960	Cosmography and cartography	3	46900
44127	English III	4	
	Semester IV		
46424	History of Colombia I (16th — 18[illegible]enturies)	3	46324
46910	General regional geography II	3	46910
47010	Anthropology	3	
48912	Educational psychology	3	45125
46681	Art history	3	
48244	Seminar on cartography	4	
44128	English	4	
	Semester V		
46025	History of Colombia II (19th — 20th centuries)	3	46424
48213	Special methods I	3	48914
46544	Medieval history	3	46444
46920	Geography of America I	3	46910
46564	History of America I	3	
57610	Ethnology of Colombia and America	3	47010
16106	Statistics (human and physical geography of Colombia)	3	
	Semester VI		
46024	History of Colombia II (19th — 20th centuries)	3	46025
48214	Special methods II (interpretive programs)	3	48213
46644	Medieval history	3	46544
46920	Geography of America II	3	46544
46664	History of America II	3	46564
48913	Audiovisual aids	3	48914
	Semester VII		
46752	Modern and contemporary history	4	46644
46950	Geography of Colombia I	3	
48221	Institutions I	3	
48232	Practice teaching I	3	48213
40010	Introduction to economics I	3	15119
48245	Seminar		
	Semester VIII		
46852	Contemporary history	4	46752
46950	Geography of Colombia	3	
48222	Institutions II	3	48221
48922	Educational administration	3	
48233	Practice teaching II	3	48215

SOURCE OF DATA: Universidad Nacional de Colombia. *Faculty of Education Curriculum.* 1968. (mimeo.)

Table 18.—*Number of class hours, laboratory hours, and credits in each subject in a sample mathematics/physics course at the* facultad *of education, University of Antioquia (Medellín), by year and/or semester: 1968*

[..... indicates source gave no data]

Subject	Hours		Credits [1]
	Class	Laboratory	
First Year [2]			
Total	*26*	*3*	*43 [3]*
Mathematics (2 semesters)	4	.....	8
Chemistry (2 semesters)	4	3	10
Social sciences (1 semester)	4	.....	4
Plane geometry or biology (1 semester)	4	.....	4
Spanish (2 semesters)	3	.....	6
Humanities (1 semester elective)	3	.....	3
Modern language (2 semesters) (English or French)	4	.....	8
Second Year			
Semester III			
Total	*23*	*5*	*24*
Calculus I	4	2	4
Mathematical logic	4	.....	4
General chemistry II	4	3	5
Analytic geometry	3	.....	3
General psychology	4	.....	4
English	4	.....	4
Semester IV			
Total	*21*	*5*	*22*
Calculus II	4	2	4
Abstract algebra	4	.....	4
Physics I	5	3	6
Adolescent psychology	4	.....	4
General algebra	4	.....	4
Third Year			
Semester V			
Total	*18*	*6*	*20*
Geometry and calculus III	4	.....	4
Audiovisual aids	2	3	3
Physics II	4	3	5
Sociology of education	4	.....	4
Vector analysis	4	.....	4
Semester VI			
Total	*17*	*3*	*18*
Differential calculus	4	.....	4
Physics III	5	3	6
Statistics I	4	.....	4
Learning and methods	4	.....	4

Subject	Hours		Credits [1]
	Class	Laboratory	
Fourth Year			
Semester VII			
Total	*18*		*18*
Differential geometry	3		3
Statistics II	4		4
Tensor analysis	4		4
Educational administration	3		3
Practice teaching	4		4
Semester VIII			
Total	*18*		*18*
Introduction to topology	4		4
Modern physics	4		4
Philosophy of education	4		4
Practice teaching	4		4
Professional ethics	2		2

[1] The total number of credits earned in this sample course is 163—52 in the major area, mathematics; 32 in the minor area, physics; 43 in general subjects; and 36 in professional education subjects.

[2] For the 1st year only, students are enrolled in the Institute of General Studies rather than in the *facultad* of education.

[3] No more than 24 credits may be earned in one semester.

SOURCE OF DATA: Universidad de Antioquia. *Boletín: Areas Mayores de Estudio para Estudiantes Regulares Especiales*. Medellín: Facultad de Educación, 1968. pp. 25–28.

from higher normal schools who have a *licenciado* degree recognized by the Government and who have taught not less than 2 academic years, (2) elementary teachers and rural normal school graduates whose diplomas have been certified by the Government and who have taught not less than 8 academic years, (3) priests who present a certificate of ordination signed by the appropriate ordinary, (4) academic secondary school graduates (*bachilleres*) with approved diplomas who have taught at least 1 year, (5) individuals with at least 5 years of secondary education and 12 years of teaching experience, (6) individuals with at least 4 years of secondary schooling and 15 years of teaching experience, (7) individuals with at least 3 years of secondary schooling and 19 years of teaching experience, (8) individuals who have successfully completed seminary study up to and including philosophy with at least 8 years of teaching experience, (9) foreign teachers whose preparation and service are judged equivalent.

In addition, according to a 1962 law, teachers who have completed 5 years of service in private schools at the first level and who have passed a pedagogical skill test with a grade of 80 percent or more, will receive a monthly increase in salary of 25 percent. Those with 10 years at the first level will be entitled to a 50-percent increase in salary. Teachers of "superior level" who serve in rural schools will have their service time for advancement on the *escalafón* increased 50 percent.[12]

[12] Ventura Bermúdez Hernández. *Código del Maestro*. Bogotá: Editorial y Tipografía Hispana, 1967. pp. 46–48.

The great variation in elementary teacher quality between Departments can be seen easily by comparing the percent of teachers on each *escalafón* level in 1969 in two selected Departments, as shown below: [13]

Level	*Antioquia*	*Tolima*
First	38.6	14.3
Second	37.2	15.7
Third	13.4	10.2
Fourth	5.3	12.3
Not eligible	5.3	47.4

Even when teachers are at the same level of the *escalafón*, salaries vary considerably among Departments. This fact is illustrated by the following comparison of the highest with the lowest salary among Departments for teachers on each *escalafón* level in 1968 (expressed in pesos per month): [14]

Level	*High*	*Low*
First	1,590	1,000
Second	1,540	872
Third	1,490	800
Fourth	1,440	743
Not Eligible	1,100	540

Salaries were highest in the Department of Antioquia, while they were among the lowest in Nariño.

The proportion of teachers on the upper levels of the *escalafón* increased considerably between 1966 and 1968.[15]

Secondary Teachers

The *escalafón* for secondary teachers follows a principle similar to that for elementary teachers, although the criteria employed are different. Although the *escalafón* in use in 1968 was considered unsatisfactory, an examination of some of its criteria will serve to illustrate the differences between the two. A university student with the degree of *licenciado* enters the second level of the *escalafón* directly; after 6 years he is promoted to the first. The same principle applies to a graduate of the various university programs designed to prepare secondary teachers. A beginning teacher with some secondary education may enter the fourth level of the secondary *escalafón* after completing a 200–260 hour inservice training course offered by the Ministry of National Education. After 4 years of experience, he becomes eligible for the third level. An individual with only 4 years of secondary education and 12 years of experience is eligible for the second level. With 18 years experience, he is eligible for the first.[16]

Recently, prospective teachers have been required to take competitive tests in their particular fields before being permitted to teach. This is required in all Departments receiving money from the Regional Education Fund.[17]

[13] Departamento de Planeación, Ministry of National Education. March 1970.
[14] Departamento Nacional de Planeación. *Planes y Programas de Desarrollo: Sector Educación*. Bogotá: June 18 1969. p. 32. (Mimeograph)
[15] Octavio Arízmendi Posada. *La Transformación Educativa Nacional*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1969. I:64, figure 10.
[16] Arango. op. cit. pp. 45–46.
[17] Decree 005 of 1970.

A survey of 923 teachers in 59 academic secondary schools showed that 38 percent were at the first level of the *escalafón*, 38 percent at the second, 3 percent at the third, 1 percent at the fourth, and 21 percent had no permanent status. Many teachers who are qualified at the first and second levels teach in schools belonging to the National Government, but due to extreme budget limitations, teachers unqualified for the *escalafón* frequently are hired in order to save money.[18]

Administrators

Administrators, inspectors, institute directors, and the like, must rank on the first level of the *escalafón*. The higher the teacher on the *escalafón*, the more preference he is given for vacant administrative positions in National schools. The production of a textbook or the publication of an educational journal without Government subsidy for 1 year counts on the *escalafón* as 2 years of school service.[19]

The administrative position of a secondary school rector or director (head principal) is sought for its prestige. In National schools, a teacher is eligible for rector if he or she is on the first or second level of the *escalafón*, has had 10 years of teaching experience, and is of the same sex as the students. Rectors are selected by the Ministry of National Education, and may be transferred at any time to another school.

One limitation of this policy is that it does not move into an administrative position the individual who is unusually well qualified as a school administrator, but who has not served as a teacher for 10 years. This situation has arisen because Colombian secondary schools are generally very small and thus the administrative role has been regarded as relatively unimportant. The new National Institutes of Middle Education, however, because of their large enrollments, will make the training of skilled school administrators imperative. Special salary incentives were initiated in 1970 to attract able personnel to these schools.

Salaries

The salary schedule for secondary teachers ranged from 2,350 pesos at the highest level in 1967 to 1,400 pesos at the lowest. National secondary schools pay somewhat better than secondary schools in most of Colombia's Departments. A cross-section comparison of other salary levels shows a monthly income of 5,800 pesos for civil engineers, 5,539 for auditors, 1,232 for typists, 1,079 for file clerks, 1,040 for receptionists, and 741 for unskilled laborers.[20] A common problem in Departmental rural schools is that salaries may be either several months late or never paid at all due to shortages of funds. When shortages occur, school budgets are among the first to suffer. In urban areas, however, salaries are nearly always paid. In general, teachers receive salary for 13 months, one of which is bonus. Departmental teachers, however, are usually paid for 10 months and receive no vacation salary.

Criticisms and Suggestions

One objection to the *escalafones* is that length of service has been the

[18] Glenn R. Varner. *Educación Secundaria en Colombia.* Bogotá: ca. 1965. p. 15. (Mimeograph)
[19] Bermúdez Hernández. op. cit. p. 58.
[20] Ministerio de Educación Nacional, *Estudio y Proyecto.* . . . op. cit. I:87–89.

only criterion used for advancement to the highest ranks. Although some inservice courses are counted in lieu of service time, there is still a need to establish more effective incentives to approve academic qualifications, especially for elementary teachers. There should also be some levels attainable only by acquiring further education. A young normal school graduate now may enter the second rank of the elementary *escalafón* and by the age of 20 reach the first level, with little incentive to pursue professional improvement during the rest of his career.

There is also a need for a more flexible category that will admit teachers trained in shop and technical specialities. At present most are ineligible for the *escalafón*, although many are capable individuals, well-prepared in their fields.

A further need exists to employ the *escalafón* more fully as a device to encourage teachers to serve in rural areas, especially in the new 5-year rural elementary schools. Special incentives are especially necessary because of poor living conditions and the prevalence of rural violence. Greater stability in teaching assignments should also be encouraged.

In addition, experience has indicated that normal school graduates become more efficient elementary teachers than do certificate recipients from inservice programs, so the abilities of the former should be more adequately rewarded by the *escalafón* than at present.[21]

Employment Conditions

Retirement Benefits

Teachers in national schools participate in social security by paying a tax of 5 percent of their salaries. They can then retire after 20 years, drawing retirement pay equal to 75 percent of their next to last year's salary. Some teachers have retired and begun teaching again, thereby collecting retirement pay in addition to full salary. There have even been some instances where individuals have retired twice and continued teaching. Teachers may also participate in several retirement programs on the National, Departmental, and municipal levels. Legislation is being considered which will insist upon retirement at a certain age.

Private schools may participate in national retirement programs, but are not required to do so.

Teachers in National schools receive numerous benefits which accrue to them as public employees. In certain respects, these benefits accrue to all employees, public or private. For example, teachers earning less than 1,500 pesos monthly are entitled to half their transportation fares paid, to and from work, if they live in a city of over 75,000 people. They also receive 15 days of paid vacation. A family subsidy is paid to both public and private employees earning less than 2,000 pesos monthly in cities of more than 100,000, and to those earning less than 1,500 pesos elsewhere. Hospitals and medical services are also covered by payroll deductions. Pregnant women in private or public employ are entitled to 8 weeks off with pay. Sick leave for illness not caused at work is computed at the rate of two-thirds pay for the first 90 days, and one-half pay for the remainder of the leave.[22] Additional subsidies have been paid to 10-month teachers for

[21] Arango. op. cit. pp. 34, 40, and 45–46.
[22] Bermúdez Hernández. op. cit. pp. 98, 100, and 104–106.

living at the school. These subsidies are increased if there are no room and board facilities offered. Christmas bonuses amount to a full month's salary. Outside the National system, however, the pay is generally lower, and pensions and bonuses do not exist, even though required by law.[23]

Placement

The National Front Government formed in 1957 established the policy that all Government employees should be divided between Conservatives and Liberals. As a result, a teacher seeking employment needs to find not only a vacancy, but also a vacancy of a particular party. Naturally, political assistance in finding such positions often proves very helpful.

Teacher placement is handled through ministry or secretariat channels, on the National, Departmental, or municipal level. It is widely believed (and often true) that teachers with the most political pull receive the best positions. Once a teacher is assigned to a Departmental rural school, it is likely to be difficult for him to advance to a more desirable urban school, no matter how able or well-prepared he may be. This is why a few well-qualified teachers who are without pull may be found in some rural areas. Some well-informed Colombians believe that these conditions have improved considerably in recent years, particularly in schools run by the Ministry of National Education. The Civil Service Law of 1962 is thought to be a contributing factor. Unfortunately, there are no private employment services for teachers.

Teachers' Organizations

Teachers do not play a significant role in forming public opinion on educational matters. This is due partly to their inhibitions about participating in a public dialog and partly to their general lack of social prestige. As public employees, teachers are not permitted to serve in leadership positions in political parties, nor may they speak or publish on political themes.[24] Their only significant organization is the teachers' union.

The Colombian Federation of Educators (*FECODE*).—Colombia's first legally organized teachers' union was the Educator's Association of Cundinamarca, founded in 1938.[25] The present national organization, founded in 1961, the Colombian Federation of Educators (FECODE), has 24 affiliated unions claiming about 65,000 members, many of whom are affiliated with 16 Departmental educational cooperatives, which have some limited economic power.

FECODE claims to have conducted more than 60 strikes, to have secured some 500 million pesos for general educational purposes, and to have reduced political interference in school affairs. Cost of living pay increases and inservice training opportunities have also been won in recent years. Many teachers, however, still live in truly miserable circumstances.

Another indication of teachers' limited influence is the delays they often experience in receiving their salaries. Inflation in the early 1960's and an unfavorable balance of foreign trade led to severe shortages of Governmental funds. This shortage was not counteracted due to legislative

[23] Varner. op. cit. p. 12.
[24] Bermúdez Hernández. op. cit. p. 15.
[25] *Renovación Educativa*. September 1967, p. 3.

inaction in increasing taxes, and so the Government in 1962–63 was as much as a year behind in the payment of some of its bills. It was even unable to pay all of its employees the wage increases it had granted during the winter. As a result, teachers went on strike in many Departments because their salaries were 2 or 3 months in arrears.[26]

FECODE's local teachers' organizations have very limited resources. They lack offices, specialized services, and full-time employees. On the national level, the Federation is somewhat more affluent, but the economic circumstances of its members have been so poor that it has generally concentrated its efforts upon improving their income rather than seeking more fundamental educational reforms.[27]

Other Teachers' Organizations.—There are several other teachers' organizations including the *National Federation of Licenciados*, which is for secondary teachers. FECODE has only had modest success in enrolling secondary teachers in its own ranks.

Private teachers are not professionally organized. Reasons for this include lack of career commitment (because teaching is merely a stepping-stone to other careers), fear of losing their jobs, and finally the opinion that union affiliation is not appropriate for teachers.

The First National Pedagogical Congress.—In December 1966, FECODE sponsored the First National Pedagogical Congress, which sought to join together all Colombian factions interested in educational reform. FECODE representatives claim that these efforts led directly to the principal features of the Ministry of National Education's Emergency Plan of 1967.

An indication of FECODE's position can be found in its statements at the Congress. Its first concern was to extend the educational system to the whole population. In this process, it held reforms should respect the following priorities: (1) School attendance, (2) literacy and adult education, (3) rural education, (4) technical and vocational education, (5) secondary (*media*) education, and (6) higher education.

The means proposed to achieve these goals included: Investing a minimum of 20 percent of the national budget in education; requiring private businesses to invest in education and instituting appropriate enforcement measures and increasing the national budget over a 4-year period until it amounts to 4 percent of the gross national product.

For teachers, FECODE sought legislation to attain the following: [28]

1. Limitation of those entering teaching to persons possessing diplomas or degrees.
2. Improvement of inservice teachers by appropriate salary and professional incentives.
3. Income adequate to support the teacher and his family.
4. Job security and personal freedom.
5. Professional training of educational administrators for all levels.
6. National administration and supervision of education in accordance with the Constitution.
7. Creation of a permanent national research and advisory council to continue the work of the First National Pedagogical Congress.

[26] Pat M. Holt. *Colombia Today—and Tomorrow*. New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1964. p. 159.
[27] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 289.
[28] *Renovación Educativa*. August 6, 1967. p. 2.

FECODE has also conducted a cooperative experimental school in an effort to point the way to better, more practical education.

Difficulties.—At a national meeting for union leaders in 1968, FECODE's president identified several current difficulties, including failure of the various governmental treasuries to send money to pay overdue teacher salaries and failure of some member unions to comply with agreements previously made. It also accused the Ministry of National Education of (1) applying the Emergency Plan of 1967 without consulting teachers' organizations, (2) blocking freedom of association, (3) imposing dictatorial methods of work, and (4) increasing persecution of union activities.[29]

FECODE itself has been criticized, at least on the local level, as a vehicle really designed to protect the interests of those teachers who already have an effective influence in the school system.[30]

Problems

Poor Appointments.—The Government has not insisted that schools comply with Law 97 of 1945, which nullifies the appointment of unqualified teachers. As a result, two poorly trained teachers may be hired rather than one normal school graduate, because it costs little more. Also, particularly in rural areas, an experienced qualified teacher—either because he dissents from the view of local politicians or because a new politician has gained control—may be replaced by a teacher of limited qualifications, and transferred to a remote post or suspended from duty.[31]

Low Status.—Many Colombians believe that individuals go into teaching because they cannot earn a living in a better paying occupation. Therefore many young men do not enter the teaching profession, believing that it offers only a limited opportunity for raising their status.

Lack of Professional Publications.—Colombia is notably deficient in periodical publications which might create and extend a spirit of professionalism among Colombian teachers and educational leaders. The First National Pedagogical Congress called upon the Ministry of Education to publish a periodical which would help teachers by providing information about opportunities for improving their qualifications, changes in educational regulations, and methods to help them function more effectively in their classrooms.[32]

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[29] Adalberto Carvajal Salcedo. *Mensaje al Primer Seminario de Dirigentes Sindicales*, Bogotá: Federación Colombiana de Educadores, February 1968, p. 1. (Mimeograph)
[30] Havens. op. cit. p. 11.
[31] Arango. op. cit. pp. 37–38.
[32] Primer Congreso Pedagógico Nacional. *Carrera Profesional Docente, Comisión IV*. ca. 1966. p. 7. (Mimeograph)

11. Private Education

The educational activities of church and state in Colombia are interdependent in many respects. Private schools may receive subsidies from public funds, public schools may meet in church buildings, Roman Catholic nuns and priests may teach in public schools, officials of the Roman Catholic hierarchy are guaranteed positions on boards of public educational institutions, the public school curriculum is imposed upon private elementary and secondary schools, and Roman Catholic religious teaching is required in public schools. Innumerable other interrelationships exist. Yet in important respects public and private educational objectives differ significantly. This chapter will deal with aspects not touched upon previously.

Private schools are authorized to select their own teachers, to draft and administer their own examinations, and to organize their own curriculums. The Ministry of National Education, however, establishes standards for the curriculum, for passing examinations, and for the grading system. The Ministry's principal concern is that the public be assured a certain minimal quality of instruction.

Public schools are generally avoided by all those who can afford to do so. The middle-class family places great emphasis on education and makes considerable sacrifice in order that at least some of its children may attend a private institution. Parents frequently feel that the best education is to be found in a private school, where they hope their offspring will develop better social class associations which they feel contribute to the quality of the educational experience. Both urban and rural students show a tendency to enroll in private institutions as family finances permit.

Government Support

Private education receives government support in the form of direct subsidies, scholarships, and some teachers assigned and paid by the National, Departmental, or municipal government. Some teachers' salaries in private *colegios* are paid by the government in exchange for scholarships, which the schools then grant to poor children (usually of the school's choice). There are also several free private schools which benefit children of the lower (*popular*) classes. Information on the financing of private education is scant, but of the 114,838,345 pesos from public

[1] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia.* Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1964. pp. 97–98. (Mimeograph)

sources expended on universities in 1962, a total of 5,944,100—5.2 percent—went to private universities enrolling almost 50 percent of the university students.[1] Direct grants-in-aid totaling a much smaller sum were also made available to a number of private elementary and secondary institutions.

Enrollments

In 1968, the number of students enrolled at each level of private school, and the percent it represented of the total enrollment at that level were for *elementary*—520,027 or 20 percent; *secondary*—313,910 or 54 percent; and *higher*—28,906 or 46 percent.[2] Estimated enrollment and location of each of various well-known private schools in the same year were as follows:[3]

Colegio Andres Bello	Cúcuta	300
Colegio Biffi	Barranquilla	400
Colegio Caldas	Bucaramanga	300
Colegio Champagnat	Pasto	300
Colegio de Cristo	Manizales	300
Colegio Fernández Baena	Barranquilla	300
Colegio Nuestra Señora Del Pilar	Bucaramanga	300
Colegio San Bartolomé	Bogotá	1,000
Colegio Villegas	Cali	400
Gimnasio Feminino	Bogotá	500
Gimnasio Manizales	Manizales	300
Gimnasio Moderno	Bogotá	400
Instituto Jorge Robledo	Medellín	900
Liceo de la Salle	Bogotá	600

Roman Catholic Education

A distinctive cultural content which emphasizes Roman Catholic values in every aspect of teaching and social life distinguishes Roman Catholic education from public education.

Government Recognition

Roman Catholic education of youth is an officially recognized aim of National education. The preamble to the act by which the Constitution of Colombia is modified in accordance with the 1957 reform plebiscite states: "For the purposes of supporting national unity, one of the bases of which is the recognition given by the political parties that the Roman Catholic religion is of the nation and that like all public powers they will protect it and see to it that it is respected as an essential element of the social order . . . ." [4] Article 12 of the Concordat with the Holy See (1887) further establishes that—

> In the university and secondary schools, in elementary schools and in other centers of teaching, education and political instruction will be organized and directed in conformity with the dogmas and spirit (*la moral*) of the Catholic religion. Religious instruction and the pious practices of the Catholic religion shall be obligatory in such centers.[5]

[2] Octavio Arízmendi Posada. *La Transformación Educativa Nacional*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1969. 1:61.
[3] Letter from Cultural Affairs Officer, U.S. Information Service, Bogotá. September 10, 1968.
[4] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 257.
[5] Ibid. pp. 257–58.

Another agreement between the Government and the Holy See concerned missions. Reached in 1953, it granted head prelates of missions responsibility for directing and supervising education in the underpopulated territories of Colombia so that "education [may] be oriented in Mission Territory in the spirit of and in accordance with the teachings of the Catholic Church, Apostolic and Roman. . . ." [6]

Influence

Provisions such as these permit the Roman Catholic clergy to influence many phases of secular educational life. A Church dignitary is always appointed to a commission studying an important current problem, and a churchman is present at every public ceremony. Thus, two fundamental questions are linked with Church influence in Colombian education—academic freedom and freedom of conscience. Concerning academic freedom, a Church statement in the early 1960's noted:

> It is not possible among us [in Colombia] to hold any university teaching position with a rationalist, non-Catholic, or anti-Catholic viewpoint, since the Colombian state trusted the church in good faith to protect Christian order and preserve Catholic values in the field of education.

The statement then went on to reaffirm that—

> Consequently, freedom of teaching, of learning, and academic and scientific freedom should be adapted to the values of the Catholic religion which the Colombian nation professes and which was always considered by the state as an essential element in the social order.[7]

This statement, by the National Secretariat of Education of the Church (SENALDI), is especially important because this body has principal responsibility for representing the Colombian episcopate in its dealings with the Ministry of National Education.

The Roman Catholic Church has used its position in the past to influence educational content [8] and by restrictive campaigns to reduce its competition from public and non-Catholic private schools (particularly in rural areas and the sparsely settled National territories). This was especially evident during the Gómez-Urdaneta regime of 1950–53.

Also due to the importance of its position, the Church has influenced Governmental policy in many ways. Until about 15 years ago, the Church's greatest effort was providing education for the politically influential classes, leaving the lower and middle classes largely untended. This lack was partially remedied by public schools and Protestant missions.[9]

Criticisms

Profit Motive.—The Church has often been criticized for being motivated only by profit, for providing schools only where the student's family could pay all or most of the cost.

Church spokesmen contend that their efforts have been greatest on the secondary level where the Government's effort has been least. A former officer of the Confederation of Catholic Colegios calculated in 1968 that

[6] Ibid. p. 258.
[7] Alfonso Uribe Misas. *La Libertad de Enseñanza en Colombia.* Medellín: Editorial Bedout, 1962. pp. 413 and 417.
[8] Some of the most ably written textbooks have been prepared by clerics.
[9] Orlando Fals Borda. "Bases for a Sociological Interpretation of Education in Colombia," in *The Caribbean: Contemporary Colombia* (A. Curtis Wilgus, ed.). Gainesville: University of Florida Press, 1962. pp. 187–88.

Church support for its secondary students amounted to as much as 70 pesos monthly per student. One study in fact seemed to show that many private schools were indeed taking a loss.[10] Because the better known private schools serve a socioeconomic elite, private education has acquired a negative, antidemocratic image.

Lack of Rural Schools.—Another criticism is based on the fact that much real estate and other productive property in Colombia do not bring in the usual tax because they belong to the Church. This exemption denies resources to National and local governments which might well be used to provide better schools. It is in effect a subsidy, which critics claim has not been used to aid the sector of society which most needs aid—the rural sector. Data gathered during the 1950's indicate that of 3,626 nuns and priests engaged in teaching, only 7 percent were located in rural areas, these being primarily members of the Capuchina Mission in the Guajira and Putumayo regions of the country.[11]

It is equally clear, however, that the Church now recognizes the wide need for rural education reform. Although Church activity on behalf of rural education dates back at least to the 1940's, the surprisingly large number of liberal Colombian priests who have left the fold in recent years—something hitherto unheard of in Colombia—has added to the sense of urgency. One such liberal priest named Camilo Torres received considerable publicity when he left the church early in the 1960's. He was eventually killed while fighting with anti-Government guerillas in support of rural peasants. Circumstances such as these are viewed as a major factor in the liberalization of the Church's position toward coeducation, because separation of the sexes is costly to maintain in sparsely settled rural communities.

Religious Emphasis—Relations between public education and church-dominated private education have been described tactfully as a condition of peaceful coexistence. Roman Catholic education is criticized for not giving enough emphasis to the social and physical sciences, for over-emphasizing religious doctrines and prayer, and for producing individuals who become reactionaries and traditionalists.[12] Roman Catholics object that Ministry of National Education regulations leave little leeway for experimentation. They feel that the minimum program which official decrees require is so extensive that it leaves little time for other activities. They regard as unfair the criteria used to evaluate schools, particularly those that stress physical facilities, such as lighting and number of library books, while the quality of teaching is largely ignored.

An association known as the National Confederation of Catholic Schools (*Colegios*) has had as one of its principal aims the securing of greater freedom from Ministry of National Education mandates, particularly in the field of curriculum organization. Five member schools were granted the right by the Ministry to serve as pilot schools—that is, they were granted the freedom to devise their own curriculums.[13] By 1970, the organization's scope had been enlarged with the name National Association of Teaching

[10] Rebeca Bernal Zapata. *Algunos Aspectos de la Educación en el Distrito Especial.* Bogotá: Javeriana University, 1967. p. 84. (A doctoral thesis) Forty-two percent of the private *colegios* studied reported a loss.
[11] Eugene A. Havens. *Education in Rural Colombia: An Investment in Human Resources.* Madison, Wis.: Land Tenure Center, University of Wisconsin, 1965. p. 8. (Mimeograph)
[12] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. p. 268.
[13] Uribe Misas. op. cit. pp. 236–39.

Centers. Secular members were rankling under what appeared to them to be the organization's tendency to adhere blindly to Roman Catholic doctrines, a position which their perpetual minority status seemed unlikely to change.

Cooperation with the Government

The close cooperation between the Roman Catholic Church and the Government in many communities is illustrated by the fact that elementary students in public school buildings are sometimes taught by nuns, while schools housed in churches frequently offer public education.[14] A survey of normal schools in the Department of Cundinamarca illustrates this complexity. In 1967 there were 34 private normal schools, 29 of which were directed by religious organizations, and 5 of which were secular. (Of the total number of private institutions seven were for men and 27 for women.) Cundinamarca also had two Departmental normal schools for men, both of which were secular, and nine for women, five of which were secular and one of which was religious, with three unspecified. There were also three National normal schools located in the Department, one for men and two for women. National normal schools are often directed by priests or nuns, although this was not the case in Cundinamarca.[15]

Mission Territory Schools

Including regions situated on the hot plains, where isolation makes living conditions primitive, mission territories comprise more than 70 percent of Colombia's land area, but contain only about 12 percent of the population. In these areas Church activities are largely autonomous, except that elementary schools seeking Government recognition must conform to the public curriculum. A 1952 measure intensified Government help to Roman Catholic missions. It gave an annual sum of about one million pesos to the Apostolic Nuncio for distribution, and another 10.5 million pesos to the heads of missions, the Vicar's Apostolic Prefects. These funds support elementary schools and thus enable Church authorities to appoint and dismiss teachers. About 316 priests, 100 nuns, and 3,500 lay teachers have been serving more than 100,000 pupils. When the political status of a territory is raised to that of a Department, Church officials must cede their control over the educational budget to civil authorities. The mission programs are structured so that they can gradually be phased out.[16]

Seminaries

Most students preparing for a religious career are enrolled in the lower seminaries (*seminarios menores*). All of these secondary-level institutions are private. They offer instruction following the general outlines of the *bachillerato*, although persons who leave the program are required to take qualifying examinations if they want to obtain an official secondary

[14] George Comstock and Nathan Maccoby. *The Peace Corps Educational Television Project in Colombia, Two Years of Research.* Stanford: Stanford University, Institute for Communications Research, 1966. 2:9 (Mimeograph)

[15] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Escuelas Normales Nacionales, Departamentales y Privadas*, Bogotá: Sección: Formación, Capacitación y Perfeccionamiento de Maestros, 1967. pp. 3, 9, and 14.

[16] Rafael Bernal Medina. "Educational Relations between the Church and the Government of Colombia," in *The World Year Book of Education, 1966: The Church and State in Education* (George Bereday and Joseph A. Lauwerys, eds.). New York: Harcourt, Brace and World, 1966. pp. 362–63.

diploma. The 1962 reform of secondary education anticipated that the first 4 years of religious education at the secondary level would correspond to the basic cycle of the *bachillerato*. In 1964, 65 such secondary institutions—53 for men and 12 for women—provided education for 6,272 males and 640 females.[17]

In 1966 there were 31 institutions classified as higher seminaries (*seminarios mayores*), enrolling a total of 1,510 students.[18]

Acción Cultural Popular (ACPO)

One of the Church's most important contributions to rural education is *Acción Cultural Popular* (People's Cultural Action). It seeks, principally by means of radio broadcasts, to reduce illiteracy and raise economic and social standards among rural peasants. This program has recognized the fact that some 8,500,000 largely neglected peasants represent a social, productive, and consumer force that should be incorporated into the national economy.

Acción Cultural Popular (ACPO) seeks to change the mental outlook of the rural peasant still living on the fringe of society. It wants him not only to accept but to seek educational improvement. Its program is based on the premise that lasting improvement of the masses is impossible unless they develop self-respect, an awareness of their own problems, and a desire to do something about them on their own initiative. Its principal means are the radio (specifically the 11 transmitters of Radio Sutatenza) and its newspaper, *El Campesino* (The Peasant).

Background

The movement leading to ACPO was begun in 1947 by Father José Joaquin Selcedo, a 24-year-old priest who arrived in Sutatenza to help the local Roman Catholic padre. Sutatenza was then a village of only 165 people, but there were 9,000 more within a few hours travel from the town. Political strife and fondness for *chicha* (homemade corn liquor) contributed to the low level of human existence prevalent in the community.

Because Salcedo was an enthusiastic amateur radio operator, he took three battery sets to a tiny hamlet for the amusement of the peasants. He also showed movies, which had not been known before. By broadcasting the recorded voices of those who participated with him in community improvement activities, he gradually influenced members of an apathetic community to work together on self-improvement projects.[19] Gradually he began to use the radio, employing half-literate intermediaries at each receiver, to teach the people to read.

UNESCO heard of the project and lent its assistance to devise more effective instructional techniques. By 1955 special readers for adult listeners were in use. By 1956, radio schools had been introduced into Colombian prisons.[20] Finally, in 1959, ACPO signed a contract with the Colombian

[17] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE). *La Educación en Colombia, 1963–1964.* Bogotá: November 1966. p. 25. (Mimeograph)

[18] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Estadísticas Globales de la Educación Superior en Colombia, (Resumen), Años 1960–1966.* Bogotá: Division de Planeación, September 1967. pp. 15–16. (Mimeograph)

[19] Camilo Torres and Berta Corredor. *Las Escuelas Radiofónicas de Sutatenza.* Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1961. p. 12.

[20] Pablo M. Ozaeta. "The Radiophonic Schools of Sutatenza, Colombia," *The Year Book of Education, 1960: Communication Media and The School,* (George Bereday and Joseph Lauwerys, eds.). Tarrytown-on-Hudson: World Book Company, 1960. p. 558.

Government to provide educational services for rural areas. This contract (with an appropriate subsidy) is still renewed annually.

Between 1963 and 1968, ACPO distributed 99,278 transistor receivers, as well as large quantities of notebooks, pencils, chalk, basketballs, and basketball hoops. Most of these supplies were financed by peasant contributions. In addition, the newspaper *El Campesino* sold an average of 60,392 copies per week.[21] Another interesting ACPO project is the operation of a practical, inexpensive library. One hundred different volumes are projected for publication, 16 of which had been published by 1970.

Radio Instruction

Radio Sutatenza now has eight radio transmitters strategically located throughout Colombia. (In 1968, they broadcast 49,000 hours of educational television.)[22] The broadcasts include a full daily schedule of information, music, and wholesome advertising, with time set aside each morning and afternoon for literacy classes. Battery transistor radios sell for about $12 each, and a set of five basic textbooks is included in the purchase price. The local parish priest is usually the key to the success or failure of the radio classes in a given community. Not only is he relied on to encourage groups and families to establish radio schools, but he also is encouraged to stimulate the sale of *El Campesino* and other reading materials at church.

The teaching program centers around volunteer helpers (*auxiliares inmediatos*). These individuals possess sufficient literacy to present visually the instructions given by the radio teacher. The *auxiliar inmediato* is usually a neighbor who knows at least the alphabet and the numbers and who can follow simple and specific instructions in a monitorial fashion. In 1967 there were 22,655 of these helpers, aided by specially trained rural leaders and parish representatives. ACPO also has three leadership institutions which in 1968 trained 642 rural youth to promote its fundamental education program.[23]

The teaching portion of the literacy course consists of 90 30-minute broadcasts for beginning readers. The subject content emphasizes five so-called fundamental themes (*cinco nociones básicas*)—health, literacy, number, economy and work, and spiritual labor. In 1967, 179,685 students, more than half over 15 years of age, were enrolled in literacy courses. Of the 34,155 who took the final tests for the basic courses, 84.5 percent passed; of the 25,092 who took the advanced course, 74.9 percent passed.[24]

The advanced course concentrates on such themes as:[25]

(1) *National history*, with emphasis on patriotism and the development of desirable moral and social qualities.

(2) *National geography*, with particular reference to the identification of new economic and labor opportunities.

(3) *Civics*, designed to demonstrate legal and administrative procedures so that the peasant can protect and advance his personal and group interests.

[21] Acción Cultural Popular (ACPO). *Informe Anual, 1968, Sección Estadística.* Bogotá: ACPO, Escuelas Radiofónicas, 1969. pp. 17 and 37.
[22] Colombia Information Service. *Colombia Today.* 5:7:4, July 1970.
[23] Ibid. pp. 25 and 53.
[24] Ibid. pp. 26, 76, and 77.
[25] Acción Cultural Popular (ACPO). *Informe Anual, 1966, Sección Estadística.* Bogotá: ACPO, Escuelas Radiofónicas, 1967. p. 18.

(4) *Manners and deportment*, so that the peasant can live and work more effectively with others.

(5) *Improvement of living standards*, in the moral, social, and hygienic sense.

(6) *Cooperativism*, with emphasis on improving the peasant's material lot through cooperative organization.

(7) *Singing and music*, to provide artistic development in the arts, including theater

(8) *Community living*, along with techniques for resolving social problems.

(9) *Domestic economy*, particularly saving, careful use of material resources, and wise use of leisure time.

(10) *Sports*, to promote healthful and enjoyable living.

There are really two types of radio schools. One is a community course usually held in the local school building by the *auxiliar* at a time convenient for village adults. The other is a family radio school held in a private home for a family and its friends. The three leadership institutions train organizers who work without pay. Their principal role is to identify in their communities volunteers to organize classes and serve as instructional assistants. To be eligible, a group must consist of eight to 10 people, possess a radio receiver, and give some assurance that its attendance will be good. ACPO also conducts short extension courses in community development.

The heaviest concentration of radio schools has been in the Departments of Antioquia, Boyacá, Cundinamarca, and Santander, probably because these Departments are near to Sutatenza and in areas strongly devoted to the Roman Catholic Church. In 1968, radio schools were beginning to function more intensively on the northern coast of Colombia and the Barranquilla area extending their impact to most of rural Colombia.

Financial Support

Every effort is put forth to make the ACPO program as self-sustaining as possible. Peasants pay much of its cost. Substantial revenue is also derived from advertising in *El Campesino*, inserts in textbooks, and radio commercials. Revenue is also derived from ACPO-owned Editorial Andes, a publishing house which does not only ACPO printing but also commercial work, and from ACPO's record-pressing facility, which does 70 percent of its business with private customers. In addition, there are donations from Holland, Germany, and other countries, and 5 million pesos from the Ministry of National Education budget.

Problems

Influx of Japanese Radios.—During the past 8 years, a large number of low-cost Japanese transistors have been smuggled in through Venezuela. Because of this, ACPO may be losing its preeminent hold on the rural airwaves. These radios have been an obstacle to the sale of ACPO sets not only because they are cheaper, but also because once a peasant has used an ordinary radio that receives broadcasts from other stations, it is hard to get him to buy ACPO's fixed-frequency receiver. Furthermore, it

is reported that many peasants have learned how to alter their fixed-frequency ACPO sets so that they receive other station's broadcasts.[26]

Dependency Upon Local Priests.—Unfortunately, although the radio schools are well conceived, they are excessively dependent upon local priests for their success. Many priests for one reason or another invest little time in promoting this aspect of the Church's educational effort, especially in remoter areas where the need is greatest. The program seems to be the most effective where elementary education is most fully developed.[27]

Insufficient Audience.—Although the radio-school activities have grown both in size and effectiveness, they still only reach about 0.5 percent of the rural population. They have not been very successful in regions where most of the rural population are renters or day workers, probably because land ownership in rural Colombia makes the farmer feel more responsible for his personal progress. The ACPO program has not been directed to the peasants who lack this primary psychological asset.

The radio school has also lacked success with the urban poor and many peasants who are moving into urban areas; it is not aimed to minister to their particular needs. Wherever the peasant economy is in transition from agriculture to crafts or small-scale industry, however, the radio classes are well received.

Achievements

Social Change.—Through ACPO's teaching, the peasant is gradually being introduced to modern technology in a religious atmosphere—an atmosphere which tends to minimize the tension and social disintegration frequently accompanying such changes. Farmers are beginning to realize that economic and social change is necessary and possible within their lifetimes; and the Roman Catholic Church, through ACPO, is gradually coming to symbolize the rightness of that change. ACPO has done more to change the peasant's style of living, however, than to raise his economic standards.[28]

National Unity.—ACPO broadcasts have served to establish the parish priests as the link between the small farmer and the national society, thus providing him with a sense of security sorely needed in his isolated situation.[29]

Protestant Education

Although small, Protestant education is a growing sector of private education in Colombia. The first Protestants organized in Colombia in 1861 during the regime of General Mosquera. By the 1870's, the Presbyterian *Colegio Americano* was operating successfully in Bogotá. Shortly afterwards similar establishments opened in at least five other Colombian cities. By 1916, about 100 Protestant schools were reported. In 1925 the Adventists, the Gospel Missionary Society, the Assembly of God, and the Scandinavian Alliance Mission were the most active denominations.[30] Growth continued throughout the 1930's and World War II.

[26] Gustavo Jiménez Cadena. *Sacerdote y Cambio Social.* Bogotá: Ediciones Tercer Mundo, 1967. pp. 72 and 116.
[27] Havens. op. cit. p. 16.
[28] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 230–31.
[29] Jiménez Cadena. op. cit. pp. 264–65.
[30] Prudencio Damboriena. *El Protestantismo en América Latina.* Friburg, Switzerland: Oficina Internacional de Investigaciones Sociales de FERES, 1963. II: 70–71.

The main elements of the Protestant community merged into the Evangelical Confederation of Colombia (CEDEC), in which about 16 groups maintain 149 schools (primarily elementary), 22 hospitals and clinics, and 13 seminaries and Bible institutes. The Protestant population in Colombia virtually doubled in a recent 4-year span—from 45,405 in 1957 to 90,809 in 1961.

Religious persecution was one aspect of *la violencia*, especially between 1948 and 1953. In these 5 years, 42 Protestant churches were totally destroyed by bombing or burning and 110 elementary schools were closed (54 by Government order). During the same period, 51 Protestants (*Evangelicos*) were killed because of their religion, 28 of them at the hands of police or government officials.[31] Indications are that religious tolerance has much improved since then.

The United Presbyterian Church in the United States of America is the oldest and most numerous Protestant denomination in Colombia. It enrolls more than 1,000 students in two American *colegios* in Barranquilla and also maintains elementary and secondary schools in Bogotá. The Mennonite Church Board of Missions is working with persons with leprosy, and is translating parts of the Bible into an Indian language for which an alphabet has been devised. Between 1946 and 1958 the American Bible Society distributed more than a million Bibles or parts of Bibles. The Latin American Mission directs a girls' normal school in Cartagena.[32] The International Baptist Theological Seminary in Cali enrolls about 45 trainees for its mission activities.

Many foreign groups with or without a religious affiliation sponsor schools in the larger cities. Many of these institutions are highly regarded by Colombians for the quality of their instruction—often given in a foreign language.

Other Private Schools

Colombia has many other private schools with no religious affiliation. Many are elementary schools, while others offer commercial education, and a few even offer the secondary *bachillerato* program. Some of these, such as the *Gimnasio Moderno* founded by Agustín Nieto Caballero, are of very high quality. Others are not, and many even fail to secure Ministry of National Education authorization to operate.

There is nevertheless a strong trend toward establishing new private schools as business ventures, especially in the larger cities. This can be attributed to two factors—the high social value placed on private education by most Colombians and the tendency to regard public elementary schools as pauper institutions. Some of the schools become very successful, but many others are doomed to failure. Such schools are relatively easy to establish—rented facilities, a few qualified teachers, and Ministry approval are all the requirements.

In general, private education has played a vital role in Colombia's cities and towns; it has helped relieve some of the educational burden assumed by National and Departmental Governments. The private school clientele, however, who represent the more influential sectors of local society, is not inclined to seek improvement in the quality of public schools.

[31] Ibid. pp. 70–72.
[32] Ibid. pp. 77–79.

12. Other Educational Programs

There are many educational programs and activities which do not fit neatly into conventional categories. They are the responsibility either of the Ministry of National Education, other governmental agencies, or private organizations. Many are associated with quasi-independent business, government, or military organizations. A 1966 survey indicated that at least 27,700 pupils were receiving instruction outside the formal system of public and private education. Nearly 1,000 students were in secondary education and another 4,000 in technical education. Other fields were served by more than 100 different institutions.[1]

Many Government organs other than the Ministry of National Education are concerned with education. The Ministry of Justice, through its Juvenile Division, works for the educational rehabilitation of youths. The Ministry of Government, through its Division of Community Action, seeks to stimulate school construction and develop public libraries and recreation centers. Through its Division of National Territories, and in collaboration with the Roman Catholic Church, it is concerned with the establishing and functioning of elementary schools. Its Division of Indian Affairs provides for literacy and acculturation of Colombian Indians. The Ministry of Public Health promotes public health campaigns, school hygiene, and related services, and trains personnel in these fields. Regional lotteries support institutions for maladjusted, defective, and orphaned children, providing some educational facilities.

Literacy and Fundamental Education

Illiteracy

A modern society cannot function effectively when a high percentage of its citizens cannot read and write. Colombia has progressed from an adult population (age 15 and over) in which 62.3 percent were literate in 1951 to one in which 72.9 percent were literate in 1964; and from a 7- to 14-year-old population in which 43.5 percent had some elementary education in 1951 to one in which 60.9 had some in 1964.[2]

Illiteracy varies considerably from one area to another. For example, in 1964 in urban areas, 29.8 percent of the population were illiterate; in

[1] Daniel Arango. *Informe del Ministro de Educación al Congreso Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1966. pp. 29–30.

[2] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. VII: 20–21. (Mimeograph)

rural areas, 70.2 percent. In Bogotá, only 10.1 percent could not read and write; in the Department of Antioquia, 19.7 percent; in the Department of Guajira, 57.5 percent; on the vacation islands of San Andrés, where English is widely spoken, only 4.6 percent.[3]

In general, men are less literate than women because boys are more likely than girls to leave school early to help on the farm. Female illiteracy is most common in areas of subsistence agriculture, such as Boyacá, Cauca, Cundinamarca, and Nariño, where girls are as useful in the field as they are in the home, and are therefore less likely to spend their childhood in school. Illiteracy is lowest in the younger age groups.[4]

Causes.—Underlying causes of illiteracy in Latin American countries include the following: (1) *the cultural tradition,* which has considered education unnecessary for the masses and thus led to a lack of schools in many areas, (2) *rapid population growth,* which has left Governments lacking the necessary economic and human resources to meet the demand for schools, and (3) *low living standards in rural areas,* which have obliged entire families to work to survive. In Colombia, about half the population is rural and thus relatively distant from schools.

Corrections.—There has been a trend to correct these conditions. Law 56 of 1927 established that parents or guardians are required to provide their children with an adequate education, in school or at home, and that each child must take an examination at a school between the ages of 11 and 13 to demonstrate compliance with the law. A 1938 law established rural boarding schools, which were supported by National, Departmental, and municipal governments. In 1948, commercial enterprises whose employees had a total of more than 40 children under 16 years of age were required to establish schools to provide elementary education for those children. Decree 41 of 1958 restructured the program, requiring Departmental secretariats of education to establish centers of fundamental education. A 1961 decree defined criteria for private adult literacy programs.[5]

Literacy Education

National Literacy Programs.—The National budget in 1966 assigned 8,217,940 pesos to literacy and fundamental education, of which 5 million pesos were allocated to the Church's *Acción Cultural Popular* (ACPO). In the same year, National night schools for literacy were serving an average of 32,500 adults, and there were 21 full-time literacy centers—12 in Antioquia, seven in Cundinamarca, and two in Bogotá.[6] (In 1964 nearly 63,000 persons were served by public and private literacy centers.[7])

A typical night literacy program is designed to meet from about 6:00 to 8:00 p.m. 5 nights per week during the school year. Subject matter, which extends over a 2-year period, includes agricultural and industrial education, civics, health education, home-life education, language arts, mathematics, reading, recreational skills, religious and moral education, and writing.

[3] Ibid.
[4] Alejandro Bernal Escobar. *La Educación en Colombia.* Bogotá: Centro de Investigaciones Sociales, 1964. pp. 104–06. (Mimeograph)
[5] Arango. op. cit. pp. 11–12.
[6] Instituto Interamericano de Ciencias Agrícolas. op. cit. pp. 93, 95, and 105–06.
[7] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Memoria del Ministro de Educación Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1967. IV: pp. 28–29.

Also participating in programs for adult literacy are rural nuclear elementary schools, *Acción Communal* (a Division of the Ministry of Government), the Institute for Agrarian Reform, and the Ministry of Health. *Acción Communal*, created by Decree 1761 of 1959, stimulates campaigns to improve living standards throughout the country. By 1963 more than 4,700 community action committees had been formed. About one-third of their activities consisted of education programs.[8] *Acción Communal* also provides opportunities for university students to participate in programs of community development.

Student Teachers.—In support of literacy endeavors, Decree 2059 of 1962 required students in the 5th and 6th years of secondary education to devote 72 hours to teaching illiterates. This decree is rather difficult to carry out because in the cities, where there are many secondary students available, there are relatively few illiterates (or individuals who are willing to admit that they are illiterate); yet in rural areas, where there are few secondary students, there are many illiterates.

Despite these handicaps, the 1962 decree has stimulated a great deal of useful activity. Secondary schools and religious groups have set up their own night schools to help secondary students comply with the law. A great deal of unbounded enthusiasm for learning has been reported from both the illiterates and their student teachers.

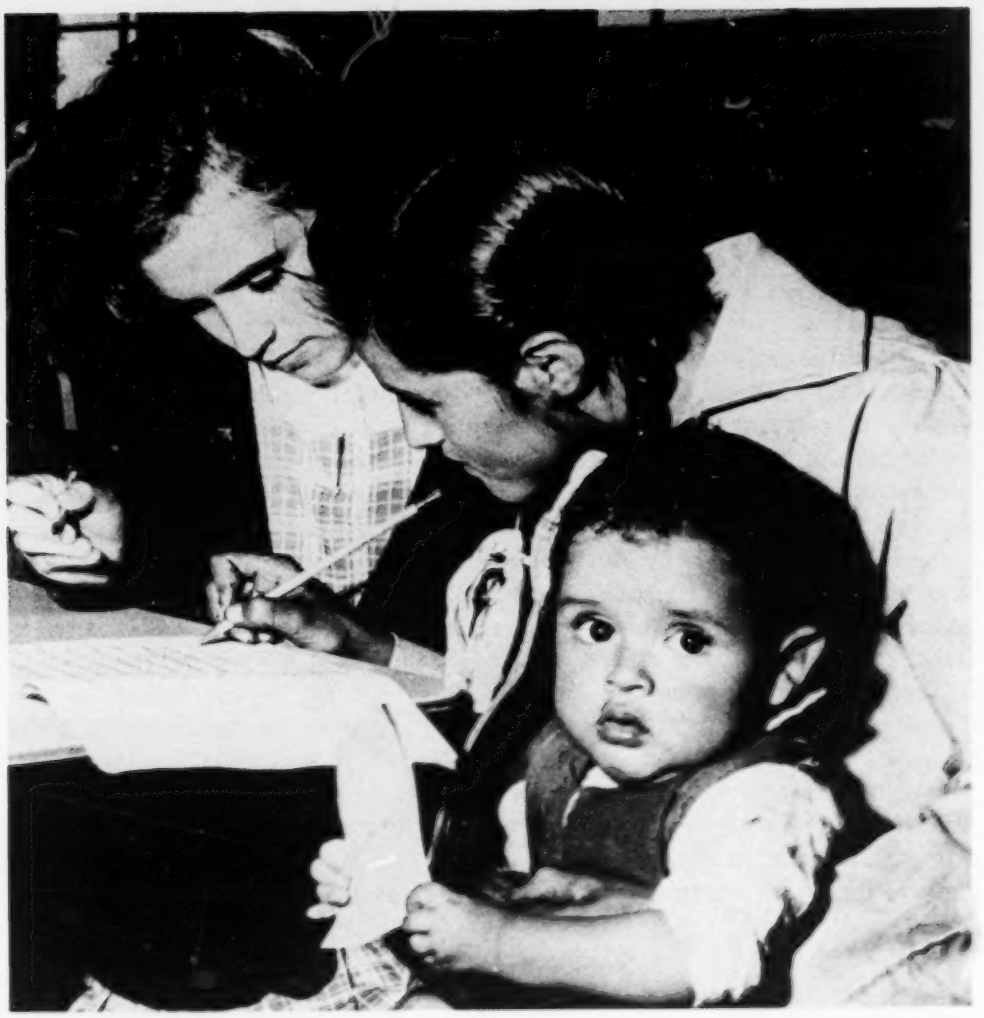
One illustration of the student-teacher effort is seen in the *Gimnasio Moderno*, one of Bogotá's best private secondary schools. Every year an official inspector gives a 5-week course to students from the *Gimnasio* and several other schools to prepare them for their teaching duties. The Ministry of Defense provides facilities so that each Saturday morning these students may give instruction to a group of illiterate soldiers, while students who live on the *Gimnasio Moderno* campus teach service employees.[9] Another illustration occurred at the La Picota, a 1,500-inmate penitentiary near Bogotá, where in 1967 a total of 150 illiterate prisoners took courses which extended through the 5th year of elementary school and which were taught by Ministry of National Education teachers and qualified inmate-teachers.[10]

In addition, the Laubach organization is active, training and directing Peace Corps volunteers in literacy work, conducting a Laubach training center at the University of Antioquia, and preparing an educational television program to be broadcast in Spanish.[11]

Rural Literacy Education

The nature of illiteracy in five rural villages has been described in a survey by National University sociology students. Three of the communities studied are located in central Colombia, about an hour's drive from Bogotá, and the other two are situated near the Ecuadorian border in southwestern Colombia. All were characterized by extremely small farms operated by subsistence farmers with mixed Indian and Spanish background. Their educational levels were relatively low, and there was little exposure to

[8] Bernal Escobar. op. cit. pp. 224–25.
[9] Agustín Nieto Caballero. *Una Escuela* (Gimnasio Moderno de Bogotá). Bogotá: Antares-Tercer Mundo, 1966. pp. 327–38.
[10] *El Siglo*. February 2, 1968.
[11] William F. Marquardt and Richard W. Cortright. "Review of Contemporary Research on Literacy and Adult Education in Latin America," *Latin American Research Review*. 3:3:56, Summer 1968.



A Colombian student-teacher helping a young mother in a literacy class

mass media and few economic opportunities. Each villager was examined for his functional literacy rate by reading a six-word sentence in Spanish. Functional literacy in the five villages was 27, 39, and 51 percent in central Colombia, and 24 and 15 percent in southwestern Colombia.[12]

Of the illiterates, 19 percent had newspapers and 6 percent had magazines read to them, frequently by children, who generally had much higher literacy rates than their parents. In fact, the percentage of all homes where the head of the household was illiterate, but where there was at least one literate family member, was 52, 59, 84, 76, and 85 percent respectively in the five villages. The researchers found high positive correlation among functional literacy scores, self-defined literacy, and years of formal education. There were, however, some individuals who said they could read a newspaper, but who could not read the six-word literacy test, and vice versa. While numerous functional literates had had less than the UNESCO standard of 4 years of schooling, only one of the functional illiterates had

[12] Everett Rogers and William Herzog. "Functional Literacy among Colombian Peasants," *Economic Development and Cultural Change*. 14:190–91, January 1966.

had 4 or more years of education. It appeared that there had been considerable acquisition of literacy outside of school.[13]

In a study in Aritama some years earlier, it was found that although 45.2 percent of all adults had attended school (38.6 percent were men and 61.4 percent women), the literacy rate there was 20.6 percent for men and 29.4 percent for women. Few people could write more than their names, and fewer still could read a newspaper. Those who were able to read did so very slowly, moving their lips or reading aloud. Many illiterates, however, proudly displayed pencils and fountain pens clipped to their shirt fronts.[14]

Literacy is only one aspect of rural education. Many organizations have been active in attempting by educational means to improve the quality of peasant agricultural practices. One of these is the National Federation of Coffee Growers (*Federación Nacional de Cafeteros*). In 1958 the Federation established its own extension service, using educational methods developed by the Ministry of Agriculture. In 1962 it invested 11 million pesos in its own program. By 1963 the Federation had stimulated 51 percent of the *municipios* in coffee-growing areas to improve the efficiency of coffee production, an enterprise which served nearly 72,000 *fincas* (small farms).[15]

The Federation operates through experimental farms, where coffee farmers can participate in short training courses. It also conducts 26 elementary schools, which in 1963 enrolled 2,100 pupils. In addition to providing literacy education, these schools begin vocational education in agricultural subjects. They also provide further education for about 2,500 adults.[16] Farm credit is often tied to success in practical courses and loans are available to persons who have demonstrated in educational programs their ability to use funds wisely. The *Banco Cafetero* established a credit service to renovate old coffee lands, and made 1,199 loans worth 2,400,000 pesos. The Agrarian Credit Bank, the Institute for the Development of Cotton Production, and the Institute for the Development of Tobacco Production have sponsored similar credit programs, often in conjunction with literacy programs, farm youth clubs, and home improvement groups.[17]

The Colombian Institute of Agrarian Reform (INCORA) has used education to stimulate the formation of cooperatives. Many of these have failed in the past because of mismanagement, poor leadership, or the tendency to expect quick results in 5 or 6 months. Now, whenever possible after a cooperative is formed, courses are offered for members, directors, and those in charge of finances, although widespread illiteracy makes teaching effective business management methods difficult. Each cooperative has an education commission, which provides special courses to promote its own organizational growth. Cooperative leaders receive a daily subsidy while they participate in special management training programs sponsored by INCORA and the National Cooperative Movement. In 1967, nine courses in cooperative management of 15 days each for cooperative board

[13] Ibid. pp. 197 and 203.
[14] Gerardo and Alicia Reichel Dolmatoff. *The People of Aritama: The Cultural Personality of a Colombian Mestizo Village*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961. pp. 115–16.
[15] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *El Desarrollo Educativo*. Bogotá: Memoria al Congreso Nacional de 1963, Imprenta Nacional, 1964. II: 70–71.
[16] Dieter K. Zschock. *Manpower Perspective in Colombia*. Princeton, N. J.: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1967. p. 117.
[17] Gómez Valderrama. *El Desarrollo Educativo*. op. cit. II: 70–71.

members and 22 1-week courses for members and their children were among those offered.

Education of Indians

The Division of Indian Affairs in the Ministry of Government has conducted for groups of Indians eight programs in community development. Each development team includes a sociologist or a lawyer, an agricultural specialist, a home economics worker, and two skilled craftsmen. The Ministry of Government assumes responsibility for the care of Indians who lack money and/or ability to care for themselves.

A 1953 agreement with the Roman Catholic Church placed Indian education in the hands of Roman Catholic mission educators, with missions in complete control of about half the schools and carrying shared responsibility for the rest. There are boarding schools in Cantrú and Noanamá for the education of Cholo Indian children and in San Luis del Chascal for the Tunebos. For female Indians in the Vaupés *comisaría*, there are schools in 13 communities.

The Division of Indian affairs operates day and evening literacy schools for Indians, as well as courses in carpentry, masonry, shoemaking, and other skills. In addition, the National Apprenticeship Service (SENA) has given scholarships to Indian students to improve their grasp of skills needed in industry and the trades. Unfortunately, however, educational programs for Indians often have been poorly financed and thus extremely poor in quality, in spite of the fact that many individuals have worked and are working enthusiastically to insure their success.[18]

Educational Television

Colombia is uniquely situated for educational television. It has a Government-owned network built to U.S. technical standards, with the world's longest microwave relay—240 miles between two peaks of the Andes. This network places 85 percent of the population and 94 percent of the schools within range of a transmitter.[19] Prior to educational television, this was used only a few hours in the evening for commercial telecasting.

Educational television may be effective in Colombia because there is one language (Spanish) used by almost everyone, an established system of public elementary schools, a National syllabus which all teachers are expected to follow, and a National television network.

In 1967, a total of 486,144 students in the public schools were taking classes by educational television. Over a hundred Peace Corps broadcast-utilization volunteers, along with a smaller number of Colombian technicians, were serving in seven Departments and in Bogotá. In 1966, nine of the 16 courses televised during the year were handled by Colombian producer-directors. By 1970, all were produced and directed by Colombians. There were about 800 receivers provided by the Government and about an equal number provided by a $575,000 grant from the Agency for International Development.[20]

[18] Ibid. II: 57, 58, and 68.
[19] John R. Winnie. "Peace Corps ETV Project in Colombia," *Audiovisual Instruction*. 10:27, January 1965.
[20] Jack Lyle et al. "Colombia's National Programme for Primary-Level Television Instruction," in *New Education Media in Action: Case Studies for Planners II*. Paris. UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning, 1967. p. 69.

Although there had been earlier attempts to employ television for educational purposes, the first large-scale effort began in 1964 as a Peace Corps project. Within 3 years of its inception, the program was functioning in about 1,250 schools. Educational television is now a part of the Government-supervised but semi-autonomous National Institute of Radio and Television, which also runs the commercial network.

To receive television education, most schools place a receiver in a particular classroom. Classes then enter to watch the telecast for their grade at the appointed time. Because so many schools do not have electricity, the program tends to function only in better-than-average schools. Effective use depends directly upon the number of volunteers or Colombian counterparts available to shape the school's activities around the television curriculum. Beginning in 1965, short Saturday morning courses were also offered to inservice teachers.[21]

Instruction

The telecasts have not been limited to enrichment. They deliver the "core" instruction for each course. During 1965, 15 courses were broadcast, each consisting of two 15-minute telecasts weekly. For each of these, the classroom teacher was expected to provide 30 minutes of supplementary instruction—15 minutes before as motivation, and 15 minutes afterwards as followup. Teacher guides were published in advance. This meant, for example, that a typical 5th-grade teacher would have to prepare for six 15-minute telecasts each week. For most teachers, preparing instruction in advance was a completely new procedure, as was the task of building instruction around an already prepared core.

The most difficult aspect for many teachers was deemphasizing memorization and recitation and substituting techniques to encourage independent thinking. To most teachers, memorization and learning are synonomous; discipline and acceptance, not independent thinking, is the desired student behavior. When a teacher does use a motivation and followup technique with a telecast, she is inclined to use those methods with which she is already most familiar.[22]

The telecasts are based on het premise that presenting a core of information by highly competent studio teachers would increase the quality of classroom instruction much more than merely supplementing the instruction of poorly prepared teachers. The intent was to expand the contribution of the better teachers, to compensate for the deficiencies of the poorer ones, and to make classes more exciting. There was widespread agreement that one of the most effective contributions of the whole project was improvement in the knowledge and competence of classroom teachers.[23]

Curriculum

Among other subjects, educational television has offered language arts for grades 1 and 2, mathematics for grades 1 to 5, natural sciences for grades 3 to 5, and social studies for grades 3 to 5. It added many other subjects

[21] George Comstock and Nathan Maccoby. *The Peace Corps Educational Television Project in Colombia, Two Years of Research.* Stanford: Stanford University, Institute for Communications Research, 1966. 1:18, 24, and 26. (Mimeograph)
[22] Ibid. 7:3–4.
[23] Lyle. op. cit. p. 75.

when effective Colombian television teachers could be found and program schedules arranged. Modern mathematics was introduced by a Ministry of National Education directive. English, French, music, and other subjects also were offered. A sample broadcast schedule for a Friday early in the school year follows:

8:00 English
8:15 Mathematics V—Properties of Modulative Multiplication
8:40 Language II—I Make My Dictionary
9:05 Language I—We Play with Lines
10:10 Natural science II—The Sense of Touch
10:35 Natural science IV—The Soil and its Relation to Materials of Construction
2:10 Social studies IV—General and Specific Characteristics of the Atlantic Coast
2:35 Music I—The Holiday Drum
3:30 Language II—I Make My Dictionary (rebroadcast)
3:55 Language I—We Play with Lines (rebroadcast)

Broadcasts for other days of the week gave a greater emphasis to mathematics. Percussion bands, inspired by the television teachers and using tin cans, scrap lumber, and nails as components of instruments have been developed in many first grades.

Problems and Progress

Telecasts have been plagued with technical problems. Coordinating schedules and communicating with schools have often been difficult. Programs have been broadcast at the wrong hours, and some lessons have been poorly conceived. Many problems have been resolved simply by additional experience. Some skeptics contend that learning is effective only when there is some direct, personal contact between teacher and learner. Nevertheless, most critics agree that television instruction has served to present information more effectively.

In 1970 the Division of Radio and Television of the Ministry of National Education inaugurated a new use of educational television by opening 20 *telescuelas* (telecenters) for adults in Bogotá. This new program is to be extended to eight Departments, where each telecenter is to become a focus for community development. Application of the medium to secondary and higher education is also contemplated.

Physical Education

Physical education is mandatory in both elementary and secondary schools. Although 3 hours per week theoretically have been required since 1967, in practice 2 hours are more common. On the secondary level the program ranges in emphasis from 60 percent gymnastics in the first 2 years to 30 percent in the 6th year. Another 20 percent of each course is designated for evaluation, and the remainder consists of sports and similar activities.[24] Basketball is a favorite sport because it can be played in a limited area within an enclosed patio. Balls and hoops are costly, however, and as luxury items are subject to a high import tax.

[24] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Programa de Educación Física para Enseñanza Media.* Bogotá, 1967. Preface. (Mimeograph)

Teachers of physical education are very scarce, with an average of only 13 graduates prepared annually. In 1968 there were 380 teachers of physical education, of whom only 168 held degrees in the field. These were assisted by 50 Peace Corps volunteers who served in secondary and normal schools.[25]

University students are required to take 1 year of physical education at the University of Valle and the Industrial University of Santander. All other universities must offer the course, but students are not required to take it.

Athletic contests between schools are rare unless two universities happen to be situated within the same city. There are few recreational or sports activities either during or after the university years in which the student may participate with any degree of regularity, although bicycle racing, soccer, and track are popular sports in some circles.[26] Several universities have recently constructed facilities for baseball, basketball, tennis, and volleyball. In 1968, the Government founded the National Council and the Colombian Institute of Youth and Sport (COLDEPORTES) to administer the Ministry of National Education's physical education program in the schools and to promote and regulate national sports programs, especially soccer.

Education for the Handicapped

Education and care for the physically and mentally handicapped are not highly developed in Colombia, despite the fact that *la violencia* over the last two decades has greatly increased the need for such services. It has been impossible to provide educational facilities even for normal children. There is a movement to provide special help and training for physically or mentally handicapped children, but the initiative until recently has been in private hands. A Division of Special Education in the Ministry of National Education began functioning recently.

In 1969, there were 15 schools for the deaf, four schools for the blind, and one to aid the blind. There were also three centers for children with cerebral palsy, nine for the mentally retarded, and one for the mentally retarded at the preschool level. University teachers were preparing teachers in these areas. About half the pupils who received special training were in private institutions.[27]

The Colombian Institute for the Blind and Deaf at Bogotá, offering elementary education and providing vocational training for those not planning to enter a profession, is supported by Government grants and funds derived from investments. A Roman Catholic institute provides secondary and some vocational education for blind and deaf girls.[28]

The Franklin D. Roosevelt Institute

A center for crippled children up to age 15, the Franklin D. Roosevelt Institute was founded in 1947. With a capacity for about 250 inpatients, it has a brace shop, an educational program, and surgical facilities. By

[25] Data from typed report of Physical Education Section, Ministry of National Education. February 1968.
[26] Tom LaBelle. "Peace Corps in Colombia," *Journal of Health, Physical Education and Recreation*. 37: 58–59, November 1966.
[27] Alberto Betancourt G. *1969: Ano de la Transformación Educativa*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1969. pp. 5–6.
[28] Eugene Wesley Friesen. *Nature and Determinants of Attitudes toward Education and toward Physically Disabled Persons in Colombia, Peru, and the United States*. East Lansing: Michigan State University, 1966. pp. 63–64.

1955, the Institute had provided services for more than 2,000 severely handicapped children; but in that same year a severe poliomyelitis epidemic resulted in a waiting list of 5,000 children. Services at the Institute usually are provided without charge. Sixty percent of its budget comes from the Government and the remainder from private contributions.[29]

Vacation Colonies

Children frequently suffer from physical and nutritional deficiencies which can be corrected simply by several weeks or months of proper care. Colombia's vacation colonies to help such children have been in operation for several decades. In the mid-1960's, 2,400 pupils attended 11 such facilities. A similar program provides meals at school to needy and undernourished pupils and still another provides medical and dental assistance. Less than one elementary pupil in 200 received any such aid in the 1960's.

General Cultural Activities

Educational progress in Colombia is not limited to formal schooling. Many governmental and private organizations contribute in other ways to the nation's general cultural development.

The Colombian Institute of Culture (COLCULTURA)

Replacing the Ministry of National Education Division of Cultural Extension, the Colombian Institute of Culture (COLCULTURA) includes sections for fine arts, the National Band, the National Symphony Orchestra, popular culture, publications, and a theater of popular culture. Several of the Departmental governments also have sections devoted to cultural extension work.

COLCULTURA has a number of other cultural dependencies with varying degrees of autonomy. These include the Colombian Institute of Anthropology, the Columbus Theater (Teatro Colón), the Jorge Eliécer Gaitán Museum, the Museum of Colonial Art, the National Archives, the National Library, the National Museum, and the National School of Dramatic Art. There are others less clearly educational in nature.

Until its reorganization as COLCULTURA became effective in 1969, the Division of Cultural Extension had only a small budget; consequently it played a very limited role in education. It sought to encourage and collaborate on worthwhile cultural and artistic endeavors. It would issue 50 posters when some worthy cultural event came to town and it had the power to suspend the tax which the sponsors of these culturally desirable spectacles might otherwise have had to pay. The disparate nature of its concerns, however, has made it difficult to establish a clear criterion as to what is cultural. But it does serve as a useful center where people with ideas and concerns in these areas can receive encouragement and assistance.

Since 1969, COLCULTURA has sought private funds for worthwhile projects and has promoted in every possible way artistic and cultural endeavors and events related to the traditions and aspirations of the Colombian people. During the last 5 months of 1969, cultural activities sponsored by COLCULTURA included a National Festival of Religious

[29] Ibid. p. 63.

Music, an exhibition of children's paintings, eight exhibitions of Colombian painters, concerts by artists and ballet dancers abroad, performances of the National Symphony Orchestra in various Colombian cities, and the preparation of a poetry anthology. It also began an economical public library program, supported various museums, and established national awards for fine arts teaching, history and anthropology, journalistic contributions in behalf of national development, literature, music, and plastic arts. A prize of 100,000 pesos was awarded to the most outstanding nominee in each field.[30] Nearly three-fourths of all cultural events took place in Bogotá and one-eighth in Medellín.[31]

The National Library

The origins of the National Library in Bogotá go back to the year 1777, when the Royal Library of Santa Fé was opened to the public. The National Library is a dependency of the Ministry of National Education and has the largest collection of books, microfilms, and music in the country. Its collections in 1963 totaled 253,000 volumes.[32] In 1961, 30 small, poorly equipped regional libraries which were once regarded as part of the National Library became dependencies of the Ministry of National Education's Library Services Section, which is also in charge of other public libraries.

Besides the National Library, other large libraries in Colombia include the General Library of the University of Antioquia (Medellín), Javeriana University Library (Bogotá), the Luis Angel Arango Library of the *Banco de la República* (Bogotá), and the Public Pilot Library of Medellín for Latin America (Medellín), which is under the auspices of UNESCO. Many university libraries seem small because there is no central collection of books; each *facultad* has its own library.

A survey of school library facilities in all types of institutions published in 1969 indicated that 25 percent had book collections although only half of these had reading rooms. Two-thirds of these collections amounted to fewer than 200 volumes, although 916 institutions (about 3 percent of the total) reported libraries of more than 1,000 books.[33]

Scholarly Associations

Eight National and regional academies receive assistance as affiliates of the Ministry of National Education. The largest subsidies have been granted to the Colombian Academy (an academy corresponding to the Royal Spanish Academy of the Spanish language) in Madrid and to the Colombian Academy of History. Academies in law, medicine, and physical sciences also receive some assistance.

The Caro y Cuervo Institute is well known for its scholarship in bibliography, cultural history, linguistics, and philology.

Museums

The Division of Cultural Extension reported in 1964 that there were 31 museums in Colombia, 21 of which were devoted to history and art.

[30] Betancourt G. op. cit. pp. 11–12.
[31] Fernán Torres León. "Estadísticas Culturales de Colombia," *Boletín Cultural y Bibliográfico.* 10:742–43, No. 3, 1967.
[32] Instituto Interamericano de Estadística. *América en Cifras, 1965: Situatión Cultural: Educación y Otros Aspectos Culturales.* Washington: Pan American Union, 1967. p. 225.
[33] Octavio Arízmendi Posada. *La Transformación Educativa Nacional.* Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1969. I:124–25.

The Ministry of National Education aided five of these, with the greatest support going to the National Museum of Colonial Art (Bogotá).

The Government also sponsored a national art contest in 1967 and employed foreign judges to evaluate the works. The National Museum has about 20 art exhibitions a year.

The Performing Arts

National and foreign theatrical and musical performances are sponsored by the Division of Cultural Extension in the *Teatro Colón*. Foreign groups are exempt from taxes and are granted use of the theater at a nominal fee of 10 percent of the admission receipts. The National Government has given financial assistance to the Experimental Theater of Cali on condition that it give 10 free performances in other cities.

One difficulty in developing a National theater is that the public often thinks that actors represent particular political positions and take sanctions against them. As a consequence, there is a tendency to avoid innovative plays or plays on national themes which might provoke undue controversy.

Motion Pictures

In order to discourage the negative educational values implicit in many films, a National Committee of Censorship was authorized in 1955. This led in 1960 not only to a National committee for the classification of films intended for public exhibition, but also to the designation of a five-member committee to vote on the suitability of each film. Four categories are used: *Category A*—suitable for the general public, *Category B*—suitable for those over 14, *Category C*—suitable for those over 18, and *Category D*—suitable for those over 21. Over 70 unsalaried inspectors in Bogotá, along with others in smaller towns, regularly make spot checks of films to determine if underage youth are in attendance. The censor's job is to evaluate films and agree upon age limits which apply to the more than 800 public motion picture theaters in the nation. In 1969, 636 films were classified, over half of them from the United States. Cutting in order to secure approval is often severe.

Press, Radio, and TV

Of the 388 periodicals published in Colombia in 1965, 75 emphasized news and information, 49 scientific matters, 41 economic topics, 37 political affairs, and 27 religious topics. An average 1,979,714 copies of daily newspapers were published regularly.[34] Some of the larger Bogotá dailies such as *El Tiempo* and *El Espectador* boast circulations of nearly 200,000. The nation also had 220 radio and 14 television stations at the end of 1964. There were approximately 183 radio and 17 television receivers for every one thousand people.

[34] Departamento Administrativo Nacional de Estadística (DANE), *Informe al Congreso Nacional*. Bogotá: Multilith Estadinal, 1967. p. 53.

13. International and Foreign Educational Influences

There are many foreign influences in Colombian life. Because Colombia has long been dependent upon the sale of agricultural commodities to Western Europe and the United States, her educated citizens have become conscious of the influence that foreign countries have had upon her national development. Automobiles, radios, refrigeration equipment, and a host of industrial products of foreign origin have long been important features of Colombian life. As a developing nation, Colombia has been particularly interested in both the techniques and the attitudes of industrial nations. The cultural prestige of Western Europe and the political influence of the United States in world affairs have further contributed to Colombian interest in foreign institutions and ideas. Not only does proficiency in English or French confer important social status, but it is also useful in obtaining access to some of the better job opportunities in foreign businesses in Colombia. The Colombian student who has studied abroad often has access to the most prestigious professional and social circles when he returns to his own country. Little wonder then that educated Colombians have an intense interest in institutions in their own country which help them to understand the foreign milieu.

The Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX)[1]

Colombia was one of Latin America's first underdeveloped nations systematically to encourage its citizens to acquire definite skills from the more industrially developed nations of the world. Until the Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX) was founded in the 1950's, most of the positions of leadership and responsibility in Colombia were limited to the economically privileged group that had access to higher education. Foreign study opportunities were neither regulated nor organized, and in most instances scholarships for study abroad were awarded solely on the basis of the applicant's political influence and in areas of study which often had no relationship to any national need.[2] ICETEX set out to replace favoritism and political

[1] *Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior.* Originally founded as the *Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior* (Colombian Institute for Advanced Training Abroad), its original acronym, ICETEX, is still used.

[2] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *La Educación Universitaria en Colombia.* Bogotá: Fondo Universitario Nacional, 1967. p. 43. (Mimeograph)

influence in student selection with ability and personal merit. Scholarships were replaced by loans, on the theory that the benefit a student gains from his education abroad is commensurate with the capital invested.[3]

Background

ICETEX was conceived in 1943 in a master's thesis at Syracuse University, New York, by Gabriel Betancur Mejía. Recommended in 1948 to President Mariano Ospina Pérez by the National Committee on Economic Affairs, the organization was founded in 1950 and began functioning in 1952 under the leadership of Dr. Betancur, who later served two terms as Minister of Education.

The ICETEX program evolved in the following stages:

1954: ICETEX sought private funds for administrative expenses. (By 1966, 40 percent of its support came from private funds, 20 percent from the Colombian Government, and the remainder from fees for services.)

1955: ICETEX granted the first loans for study at Colombian universities.

1956: ICETEX received power to authorize the purchase of foreign currency at favorable rates for use by Colombian students abroad, thus reducing their study costs.

1958: To make more efficient use of various scholarships granted by foreign donors, ICETEX began a clearing house to identify opportunities and recommend applicants for Colombians seeking to study abroad.

1959: ICETEX began a similar clearing house for foreigners seeking to study in Colombia.

1960: ICETEX began coordinating international student travel programs to Colombia.

1962: ICETEX undertook Colombia's first comprehensive study of manpower needs.

1963: ICETEX instituted a program by which Colombian commercial banks granted loans for study in Colombia to students approved by ICETEX.

1964: ICETEX helped to establish similar organizations in Panama and the Dominican Republic. (Venezuela and Peru developed parallel programs in 1965. Educational exchange programs have been developed with the State of Florida and with various U.S. university consortiums.)

1965: The College Entrance Examination Board initiated a technical assistance program to help ICETEX improve its selection of students receiving loans and scholarships and to identify U.S. institutions appropriate for particular areas of study.

1967: ICETEX initiated an employment service for personnel who have received specialized training abroad.

1968: Banks were authorized to make long-term, low-interest loans to ICETEX to increase student loan services, with emphasis on attendance at Colombian universities.

As the foregoing facts indicate, ICETEX has varied its role to meet

[3] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). *ICETEX: A Tool for the Over-all Development of Colombia*. Bogotá: Imprenta Nacional, 1966. pp. 13–14.

changing conditions. The number of beneficiaries of foreign study assistance declined after 1961 because of national economic difficulties. The increased availability of foreign-trained Colombians and the development of Colombian facilities in some technical fields also have changed the emphasis of some ICETEX activities. The last decade has contributed new kinds of support which have led to greater emphasis on loans and less on scholarships. Both public and private universities, the Ministry of National Education, the Ministry of Mining, the National Federation of Coffee Growers, and others have entrusted ICETEX with the administration of more than 70 loan funds.

ICETEX has contributed in a variety of ways to the advanced training of students. In 1964, for example, its help included aid to 1,433 students through currency exchange subsidies, to 653 students through loans for study in Colombia, to 246 students by administering scholarships granted by foreign donors, and to 153 students through loans for study abroad.[4] The new emphasis is reflected by the fact that from October 1968 to June 1969 it granted loans to 8,632 students to study in Colombian universities.[5]

Current Purposes

Since its inception ICETEX has assisted in some way about 26 percent of all Colombians with higher education. Its present activities seek to:[6]

1. Grant low-interest loans to Colombian students of high merit, ability, and economic need for either postgraduate study abroad, technical studies abroad of less than 3 years, or, in exceptional cases, the completion abroad of university studies begun in a foreign country by a student at his own expense.
2. Grant interest-free loans to Colombian students for university and postgraduate studies in Colombia.
3. Receive and publicize all foreign scholarship offers and preselect qualified candidates.
4. Help to place in suitable occupations students returning from advanced study abroad.
5. Help choose appropriate schools for students going abroad for advanced studies.
6. Supervise the academic progress of students financed by ICETEX.
7. Collaborate with Government and private industry in sending personnel abroad for specialized training.
8. Orient foreigners coming to study in Colombia concerning scholarships.
9. Administer funds or approve bank loans to students studying in Colombian universities.
10. Award Government scholarships for study abroad.
11. Reduce red tape and authorize currency exchange at the cheaper official rate for Colombians studying abroad.

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[4] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). op. cit. pp. 17–18.
[5] Octavio Arizmendi Posada. *La Transformación Educativa Nacional*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1969. I:93.
[6] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). op. cit. pp. 17–18.

Loans

Loans for study abroad are of three major types: (1) *full*, for students with no economic resources whatsoever, (2) *partial*, for those who can afford to pay part of their expenses, and (3) *supplementary*, for needy students who have been awarded scholarships deemed insufficient to cover all necessary expenses.

Loans are granted for the academic year, and monthly checks are issued after a student submits proof of class attendance. A student with grades averaging at least 70 percent may renew the loan each year until graduation; repayment begins 1 year after graduation. Loans are available for postgraduate study up to 400 pesos monthly for university students, 1,000 pesos for unmarried professionals, and 1,500 pesos for married professionals—plus books and equipment. The interest rate is 2 percent per year, with an 8 percent penalty for late payment.[7]

Organizations which have made some of the largest contributions to the loan fund include Ecopetrol, the Ministry of Mining, the National Federation of Coffee Growers, National University, and the University of Los Andes.[8]

Favorable Exchange Rates

Purchase of dollars at the ICETEX exchange rate is more advantageous than buying them on the free market. In general, this exchange rate is given only for studies which cannot be carried out adequately in Colombia. A student deposit system also allows a student's family to open an account with ICETEX in which the family makes regular deposits in pesos during his period of study abroad. ICETEX then sends money orders to the student in dollars.[9] Dollars for undergraduate study abroad have not been authorized since 1967, except for junior college terminal courses and for graduate study in certain fields not yet well developed in Colombia.

Other Assistance

In 1960, ICETEX established a fellowship program to finance the advanced training of Colombian university professors and administrators. Under this program, the Colombian Association of Universities and ICETEX choose appropriate foreign universities. Individual universities then finance 30 percent of the training of staff members. The remaining 70 percent may be obtained by a loan from a joint fund, to be repaid in 10 years. Beneficiaries are required to serve their sponsoring university for a period twice as long as the duration of their studies.

The Colombian Government also offers cultural exchange postgraduate scholarships, administered by ICETEX, to professors from other Latin American countries and to citizens of countries which offer scholarships to Colombia.[10]

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[7] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). *Información e Instrucciones sobre Préstamos para Estudios Universitarios y de Especialización en Centros Docentes de Colombia.* Bogotá: 1968. pp. 2, 3, and 8. (Pamphlet)

[8] Instituto Colombiano de Especialización Técnica en el Exterior (ICETEX). *ICETEX, A Tool. . . .* op. cit. p. 36.

[9] Ibid. p. 23.

[10] Ibid. pp. 24 and 27.

The Brain Drain

Many well-qualified Colombians migrate to other countries because they cannot secure in their own country employment suited to their skill and ability. From 1961 to 1968, for example, 3,880 Colombian professionals and technicians emigrated to the United States. More than a third of these were in the field of medicine.[11] Colombian surgeon Nelson Giraldo Monsalve, named by the University of Utah as its "Scientist of the Year," in an open letter to President Lleras Restepo pointed out that "group intrigues, . . . the lack of an 'in' with a politically influential person, [and] lack of an affiliation with the right political or religious groups" are important obstacles to young professionals who wish to stay in their native country.[12]

Causes

Colombian leaders are deeply concerned with this problem of brain drain. One of its fundamental causes is that in Colombian higher education many foreign ideas and foreign textbooks produce Colombians who feel intellectually more at home in a foreign culture than in their own. Many then spend an additional year or two abroad taking advanced training, and on their return find their maladaptation to their native country virtually complete.[13]

Another cause may be Colombia's inability (shared with many underdeveloped countries) to absorb the talents of many highly specialized persons. Many private businesses prefer low-cost employees trained on the job, even in responsible managerial positions. Government departments often lack suitable positions or technical equipment for highly trained university graduates. Research facilities and teaching opportunities in universities also are limited. Although ICETEX and SENA have identified needs in the various occupational fields, national policymakers have not given sufficient support to developing a national plan. The majority of professional careers in Colombia are new, and consequently adequate standards are generally lacking. As a result, poorly trained individuals hinder the well-trained from securing adequate employment.

In addition, many professions are conducted in a commercial rather than in a professional spirit; too frequently laws supporting good professional practices are not enforced. The professional who finds excessive commercialism distasteful is inclined to migrate to societies where altruistic service is expected.

On the other hand, all too frequently the university experience does not instill a vision of service, either toward the profession or toward the country. Higher education is in effect denationalized, and one's country becomes that place where the pay is best. Foreign employment often provides salaries several times higher than equivalent work in Colombia.

Other factors which encourage Colombians to work abroad are the nationalization of many private industries, the limited job opportunities

[11] Gerardo Eusse Hoyos. *The Outflow of Professional Manpower from Colombia.* Bogotá: ICETEX, 1969. p. 53.
[12] *El Tiempo.* January 23, 1968.
[13] Eduardo Arias Osorio. "La Emigración de Profesionales Colombianos: Analisís de sus Causas y Posibles Soluciones," *Crónica Universitaria.* 3:29–40, No. 5, 1967.

with foreign firms in Colombia, and the low status of some of the newer careers in Colombia.[14]

Corrective Measures

A number of ways suggested to reduce the exodus of trained professionals include: [15]

1. Creating better employment conditions.
2. Granting through legislation greater recognition to scientific excellence (similar to that in France).
3. Limiting study abroad more carefully to those specialties most needed at home.
4. Providing a National employment service and university employment services.
5. Reducing tariff rates on scientific equipment needed for professionals to function more effectively.
6. Requiring minimum work experience of at least 1 year for a university *egresado* before he can leave the country.

The Colombian Government has responded to these suggestions by offering more attractive salaries and employment services to returnees from abroad. All but 2.26 percent of ICETEX-financed students have returned home.[16]

Study Abroad

In 1969, 4,578 Colombian students were enrolled in schools in 34 foreign countries. Of these, 48.7 percent were in the United States, 10.0 percent in Spain, 7.0 percent in Italy, and 6.0 percent in Germany.[17] Large numbers of military officers were also trained abroad between 1950 and 1966; 1,739 of these were trained in the United States, and 1,394 in other foreign countries.[18]

Of a total of 49,319 university students in Colombia in 1966, 877 were foreigners. Of these, 309 were from other South American countries, 232 from Europe, 227 from Central America and Mexico, 86 from the United States and Canada, 18 from Asia, and 5 from Africa and Oceania.[19]

Foreign Schools in Colombia

Nearly a century ago the first *Colegio Americano* was founded in Bogotá as a project of the Presbyterian Church. Foreign schools such as this have provided an alternative to the traditional educational system and often are popular with the affluent classes. Still others are oriented toward the urban middle and lower classes. Some have encouraged the development of coeducation, a practice which until recently has been discouraged by the Government in deference to the views of the Roman Catholic Church. The best known foreign schools are the following: [20]

[14] Ibid. pp. 30, 33, and 35.
[15] Ibid. pp. 36–37.
[16] Eusse Hoyos. op. cit. pp. 31 and 42.
[17] Ibid. p. 43.
[18] Robert P. Case. "El Entrenamiento de Militares Latinoamericanos en los Estados Unidos," *Aportes*. 6:6:55, October 1967.
[19] Asociación Colombiana de Universidades. *Estadísticas Globales de la Educación Superior en Colombia, (Resumen), Años 1960–1966*. Bogotá: División de Planeación, September 1967. p. 23. (Mimeograph)
[20] Letter from the Cultural Affairs Officer, U.S. Information Service, Bogotá. September 10, 1968.

American schools	*City*	*1965-66 enrollment*	*Language of instruction*
Colegio Bolívar	Cali	1,614	English.
Colegio Karl C. Parrish	Barranquilla	516	English.
Colegio Nueva Granada	Bogotá	1,000	English.
Columbus School	Medellín	451	English.
Escuela Jorge Washington	Cartagena	265	English.
Other foreign schools			
Colegio Andino	Bogotá	1,000	German.
Colegio Angio-Colombiano	Bogotá	600	Spanish.
Colegio Calasanz	Bogotá	520	Spanish.
Colegio Emanuel D'Aizon	Bogotá	350	Spanish.
Colegio Helvetia	Bogotá	300	Spanish.
Colegio San Carlos	Bogotá	350	English, Spanish.
Colegio San Viator	Bogotá	500	English, Spanish.
Liceo Frances Louis Pasteur	Bogotá	1,000	French.

Foreign Assistance to Colombian Education

Many foreign countries have provided assistance to Colombian education, sometimes by grants or loans, and sometimes with more complex arrangements, such as providing technical experts and training programs in Colombia and in the donor nation. Some of this aid has been criticized as not only ineffectual but harmful to the extent that foreign ideas have diverted attention from a proper appraisal of Colombia's educational problems. Sometimes aid comes not only from aliens unfamiliar with Colombian educational conditions, but also from aliens who lack specialized experience in the educational project they are attempting in Colombia —such as some foreign team members who lacked both teaching and television experience and yet were working with educational television in Colombian elementary schools a few years ago. If, however, Colombians reject aid which they do not really consider to be appropriate, they may be choosing, in effect, a slower educational development. What is needed are more original reform initiatives from Colombia capable of attracting foreign support.[21]

Sources and Recipients

Some major foreign sources of financial and technical aid to education from 1960–67 and the amount of aid given (in U.S. dollars) were as follows: [22]

Total	*$48,049,648*
Agency for International Development	8,391,000
Ford Foundation	7,655,900
International Development Bank	15,600,000
Kellogg Foundation	5,724,079
Rockefeller Foundation	5,116,769
Special Fund of the United Nations	3,423,200
UNESCO	2,138,700

[21] Laurence Gale. *Education and Development in Latin America.* New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1969. pp. 134–36.

[22] Ministerio de Educación Nacional. *Estudio y Proyecto de Educación Media para Presentar al Banco Internacional de Reconstrucción y Fomento.* Bogotá: Oficina de Planeamiento, Institutos Nacionales de Educación Media, September 1967. II:7. (Mimeograph) Some of those listed were loans, others were grants. Not all were dedicated exclusively to education.

Much of this aid from foreign sources has been granted directly to universities. The universities receiving foreign grants and loans from 1960–67, and the amount received (in U.S. dollars) were as follows: [23]

Total	*$28,022,545*
Industrial University of Santander	1,687,700
Javeriana University	601,000
National University	9,361,700
University of Antioquia	6,971,495
University of Caldas	40,000
University of Los Andes	3,087,710
University of Valle	6,272,940

In addition, a Ministry of National Education project borrowed $14,100,000 (U.S.) from the World Bank to finance 19 secondary education institutes. Much of the assistance provided with U.S. funds has been made available under contract with U.S. universities.

The U.S. Agency for International Development (AID)

The Ministry of National Education signed a contract in 1961 with the U.S. Agency for International Development (AID) which contributed $3,540,000 for constructing and equipping elementary and normal schools and for providing teaching materials and teacher training. The Agency for International Development also has supplied architects, engineers, and specialists in teacher training and school planning. Total AID grants for education under the Alliance for Progress amounted to $6,789,000 between fiscal year 1962 and 1967, although U.S. financial assistance has been greatly reduced during the past 6 years. Most of the $315,000 committed in fiscal year 1967 were used to conduct a survey of higher education and to help the Ministry of National Education plan a comprehensive, multipurpose, public secondary school program. Alliance for Progress aid also included work in agricultural education and extension, and advisors in educational administration, teacher education, and secondary education.[24] German and French advisers have also rendered valuable assistance in elementary and teacher education respectively.

Foundations

The Ford and Rockefeller Foundations have made substantial contributions to various universities in equipment, experts, money, and scholarships. The Ford Foundation has made large grants to the University of Los Andes to encourage preparing undergraduate engineers and developing programs in the arts and sciences. It is also giving aid to the Colombian Association of Faculties of Medicine for research and population studies; to Javeriana University for basic sciences and teacher education; to National University for library development and sociology; to the University of Antioquia for teacher training and general development; and to the University of Valle for science, engineering, general development, and graduate programs in industrial management.[25]

One of the Rockefeller Foundation's major national efforts is the

[23] Ibid. p. 8.
[24] U.S. Embassy. Briefing Paper on U.S. Economic Assistance, ca. 1968.
[25] Ford Foundation. *Annual Report: 1967*. New York: Ford Foundation, ca. 1967. p. 121.

Cooperative Agricultural Program in Colombia. With the collaboration of the Ministry of Agriculture, this program is evolving into a hemispheric center for research and education. This Ministry also created in 1962 the Colombian Institute of Agriculture (ICA), which the following year was granted nationwide responsibility for agricultural research and extension.

The Peace Corps

Early Volunteers.—Colombia was the first Latin American country to receive Peace Corps volunteers. The earliest group, assigned in September 1961, consisted of 61 men serving in community development. By the fall of 1963, there were more than 400 volunteers in Colombia, 50 of whom were in agricultural extension, 45 in secondary education, 25 in physical education, and 25 in university work. The remainder at that time were in community development and public health activities. Since 1965, there have always been more than 50 volunteers in active service. Many of the later volunteers participated as producers and coordinators of educational television for the elementary schools. In 1967, about 700 were serving in a wide variety of activities. A Peace Corps girl taught the first course ever offered at the University of Antioquia's new campus at Medellín, which opened in 1967.

The Colombo-American Linguistic Institute (ILCA).—Peace Corps volunteers have taught courses for the Colombo-American Linguistic Institute (ILCA), which since 1962 has trained more than a thousand Colombian teachers of English in language skills and teaching techniques. Planned by U.S. specialists, ILCA has programs in 11 regional centers. Teachers who complete the program are advanced a year in the *escalafón*. Similar Peace Corps training was begun in 1965 for secondary teachers of mathematics, biology, and physics.[26] In physics alone, an estimated 800 teachers have been trained, mostly in inservice vacation programs.

The Organization of American States (OAS)

A number of inter-American educational programs located in Colombia are conducted by the Organization of American States (OAS). These include: (1) the Inter-American Housing and Planning Center (CINVA) program in Bogotá, which provides research and specialist training in housing and city planning, (2) an annual course in methods of implementing agrarian reform as an aspect of economic and social development, conducted by the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences of San José, Costa Rica, (3) a program of training and research in inter-American standardization to accelerate economic integration, with particular reference to beverages, food enterprises, iron and steel products, and textiles, and (4) the Andrés Bello Center program in Bogotá, which functions in conjunction with Bogotá's Caro y Cuervo Institute in the study of Spanish-American philology and linguistics.[27]

The Andean Educational Pact

At a meeting in January 1970, the ministers of six Andean nations (Bolivia, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Venezuela) met in Bogotá

[26] Charles B. Neff. "A New Approach to Teacher Training in Colombia," *International Education and Cultural Exchange.* pp. 31–34, Summer 1967.
[27] Pan American Union. *Highlights of Education in Colombia.* Washington: Department of Educational Affairs, 1967. p. 14. (Mimeograph)

and signed the "Andrés Bello" agreement to foster educational, cultural, and scientific cooperation among their respective nations. Although only in its exploratory stages, the meeting was a product of an earlier cultural integration meeting sponsored by the Organization of American States and, in part, a reaction to the culturally cheapening effect of U.S. commercial television shows which constitute much of the program fare in the participating countries. Sex, violence, and drugs were singled out as particularly destructive themes. Conferees were concerned lest these and other cultural influences weaken the wholesome qualities of the Latin American tradition.[28] They also were seeking to strengthen the possibility of economic integration by strengthening the cultural sector.

The conference addressed itself to ways in which the respective countries might cooperate in furthering their larger educational interests. Possibilities identified for further mutual exploration included:

1. Coordinating educational institutions that have similar problems.
2. Coordinating international technical assistance to make it more efficient and to establish a common policy.
3. Establishing equivalencies for elementary, secondary, and higher education to give professionals who have completed a period of working experience in their country of origin the same freedom to work in other countries as in their own.
4. Planning the preparation of common textbooks in natural science and arithmetic and introducing a uniform system of handling educational statistics.
5. Recognizing the need to revise the writing and teaching of history if integration is to become possible.
6. Planning to eliminate tariff restrictions on teaching material and on scientific and cultural items destined for educational institutions, and eliminating visas for teachers and students.
7. Studying the possible use of a satellite for television transmission to all the Andean countries.
8. Furthering exchange of books and records and stimulating development of scientific and cultural meetings, short vacation courses, and scholarships among the participating nations.

The conference laid the groundwork for establishing more effective channels of communication in these areas.

UNESCO

In a number of ways, UNESCO and other U.N. organizations provide aid to Colombian education. The most common way has been the provision of specialists in a wide variety of fields, such as mathematics, physics, school administration and inspection, and statistics. More specifically, they provided an expert to help organize the *facultad* of sociology at National University and experts to serve at the normal school at Pamplona. During that same period various agencies of the United Nations invested $5 million in education, including preparation of engineers at the Industrial Univer-

[28] *El Espectador*. January 31, 1970.

sity of Santander, agricultural research at the University of Valle, and engineering training at National University.[29] International Labor Organization aid from the Special Fund of the United Nations has been used to equip the shops of the National Apprenticeship Service. The World Health Organization has also assisted educational programs of the Ministry of Health. The Special Fund established a center in Colombia in 1969 to encourage a more efficient book production and marketing effort among Latin America's publishers.

The Colombian Government regularly requests UNESCO to provide education experts in selected fields. For example, assistance has been provided in agricultural education, educational planning, elementary teacher training, scientific research activities, and secondary school organization. The Special Fund of the United Nations also provides assistance in the fields of university instruction in chemistry and engineering and of middle-level instruction in agriculture. UNICEF provides technical information to help train elementary teachers. The Colombian Government selects the teachers, and UNESCO provides them expense-paid, inservice training during vacations. In these and many other ways, educators in Colombia become aware of some of the best educational ideas from the rest of the world.

[29] Pedro Gómez Valderrama. *Memoria del Ministro de Educación Nacional*. Bogotá: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, 1964. 1:51–52.

14. Conclusions

Achievements

Many remarkable achievements may be credited to Colombian education during the past decade. These achievements are remarkable because Colombia has just begun to emerge from an agrarian past and to enter an industrial future. Formerly rent by regionalism and by extremes of political unrest and civil violence, Colombia is now one of the most rapidly industrializing nations of Latin America. Particularly significant is the fact that many achievements were wrought by members of the Colombian elite who saw that remolding the nation's human resources was necessary to construct a vigorous and modern nation.

Much of this progress is the fruit of a sustained effort to encourage Colombians to study the ideas and practices of other nations. From this study emerged a widening consensus that much might be done to improve economic and social conditions for all Colombians.

To be sure, Colombia has always had some educational and cultural marks of distinction—the dedicated teaching of the early religious orders, the thorough research of the Botanical Expedition, the public education enthusiasm of Dámaso Zapata, and the popular zeal of today's universities. Rightly acclaimed for the quality of their contributions have been institutions such as the Gimnasio Moderno secondary school under Agustín Nieto Caballero, the University of Los Andes, and others, both public and private.

There is much about Colombian education that is already outstanding. Some of the better known examples of Colombian ingenuity at work are the foreign study programs of the Colombian Institute for Educational Loans and Advanced Training Abroad (ICETEX), the planting and coordination efforts of the Colombian Institute for the Development of Higher Education (ICFES), the vocational training activities of the National Apprenticeship Service (SENA), and the fundamental education work of *Acción Cultural Popular* (ACPO).

Colombia's recent educational progress can be seen in the enrollment increases. Elementary school enrollment rose over 20 percent from 1965 to 1968; retention of students improved to an even greater extent. Secondary school enrollments rose over 42 percent during the same period, again with improved retention. Even higher education enrollment rose over 28 percent.

That the present push for rapid development should have come about is all the more remarkable when one considers that Colombia remains a

deeply divided and fragmented society. Not only are there the usual upper- and lower-class social extremes so common in Latin America, but there is rural-urban discrimination and, most importantly for education, local loyalties for many Colombians still take precedence over national loyalty.

This division of loyalty between locality and nation has both helped and hindered educational progress. It has helped by creating a climate of permissiveness in which a plethora of higher education institutions have flourished; it has hindered by leading to a struggle between the concepts of a strong National Government and of local autonomy. This struggle in turn has limited the National Government in its efforts to impose a high degree of regulation in elementary and secondary schools (and thus to extend elementary education to the neglected fourth of the population), because it has lacked the power and the money to enforce its regulation locally. Although educational authority is centralized in the Ministry of National Education, in practice the Ministry has not had full control of most local schools.

Prospects

What are the prospects for the future? This report has identified many of the solutions which Colombians have proposed for their educational problems. Many changes already are underway. The most important ones include:

1. Use of tests to establish competency for university admission and to qualify for elementary and secondary teaching.
2. Efforts to implement the principle that a full 5 years of elementary schooling should be made available to all.
3. An administrative reorganization giving the National Government greater influence in encouraging efficient use of educational funds in Departmental and local jurisdiction.
4. Greater access, in the form of the Institutes of Middle Education, to public secondary education for the middle class.
5. University efforts to (a) introduce practical short courses, (b) provide wider and more efficient sharing of resources, both internally and among universities, and (c) offer greater course flexibility.

Even these changes, which are increasing the relevance or efficiency of schooling for many Colombians, may have their negative side. For example, although tests may raise standards of admission to university study and to secondary teaching, used too rigidly they may favor the affluent who can afford the expense of a costly cram school. Although the administrative reorganization is designed to encourage a more efficient and professional use of education funds, it may become an encroachment by the Federal bureaucracy upon the local community's right to develop in its own way. And university efforts to introduce practical short courses may hinder practical training at the secondary level.

Even with all the proposed improvements, elementary education will still be insufficient. Pupils with the greatest deficiences generally have the poorest teachers and receive the least benefit from their schooling. In the

teacher-salary schedule, time servers still rise to the high levels, despite deficient preparation; acceptance into teaching is still based less upon merit than upon political or social affiliation; and nearly all schools must adhere to the official course of study, even though the vast majority of pupils complete only a tiny fraction of it.

Fortunately, a host of Colombian educational leaders stand fully aware that matters such as these demand their fullest attention before a still more exciting era of national transformation can begin.

Appendixes

Appendix A. Selections From a First Grade Teacher's Guide[1]

Problem No. 28

Topic: How Can We Save?

Pennies grow into pesos.
Time is money.
Haste makes waste.
He who saves ahead, stays ahead.

Program Theme

The Church of Jesus, the family of God on earth (theme 36)
In the House of God, they gather together and pray in the name of Jesus (theme 37)

Social Studies

Basic needs of the whole family
Importance of work and intelligent use of time
Advantages of saving and forms of saving
Persons with whom the child comes into contact: Banker, Messenger
World Savings Day
Savings Institutions: Colombian Savings Bank
School Savings
Visit the Colombian Savings Bank.

Language

Distinguish question sentences by means of question marks.
Tell about one's experiences.
Composition: the Busy Bee
Song about saving, singing
Dramatizations
Planning a visit
Interpretation of some comic strips
Oral summary of a simple selection read aloud
Reading of flash cards
Read and write names of friends and members of the family
Interpret and complete simple symbols

Mathematics

Problems of subtraction and addition (inverse operation)
The number 19. Break down into pairs of sums.
Subtract with 7, 8, and 9 without borrowing.
Subtract numbers with two figures without borrowing.

Esthetic and Manual Education

Singing: Hymn of Saving, first verse
Drawing: Make a picture of a pile of money.

Physical Education

Game: The Little Candle (See folder for instructions)

Objectives

Fix habits of saving aimed at an intelligent use of time and resources available for the rational satisfaction of pupil needs.
Develop a spirit of taking care of their clothing and personal objects, school furniture, trees, and public places in the community.
Develop skill in using leftover materials, which when intelligently modified, provide comfort, enjoyment or beauty.
Accustom them to treat with respect all people who render them a service.
Help them progress in their ability to read and write correctly and interpret graphs.

See footnotes at end of appendix.

Be capable of applying number concepts in the solution of practical addition and subtraction problems.
Participate with naturalness and initiative in dramatic games and dramatizations.
Help fix habits in the adoption of correct behavior with respect to remaining seated, standing, reading, writing, and walking.

Suggested Activity[2]

My daddy works to support the family.
My mother buys only what she really needs. Thus, my mother saves money.
The child who studies saves his parents money.
Germán saves because he takes care of his texts and notebooks.
Saving is spending only what you need to.
At the savings bank they raffle off a house to those who have an account there.
Study is a special task of children.
My father has a savings account.
With the money they saved, mother and father bought a house.
I bought mother a gift with the money I saved.
I bought this box of crackers with my savings.

[1] Prepared for the 3d week of October 1967 (which is near the end of the school year).

[2] The teacher is to write on the blackboard several relevant sentences from the ones given. (This sample was selected from several pages of suggested activities.)

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, División de Educación Elemental. *Guía para el Maestro, Educación Primaria, Primer Grado.* Bogotá: The Ministry, 1967. pp. 246–47. (Mimeograph)

Appendix B. A Public School First Grade Final Examination in Religion

1. Fill in the blank to complete the sentence.
   (a) Everything which exists was made by _____.
   (b) Our first parents committed the sin of _____.
   (c) When we say _____ to God we commit a sin.
   (d) We celebrate the birth of Jesus on _____.
   (e) The mother of Jesus is called _____.
2. Mark the best answer with an x.
   Why is Sunday the Lord's Day?
   (a)_____because it's the last day of the week.
   (b)_____because it's a holiday.
   (c)_____to celebrate the triumph of the Resurrection.
3. How do we honor the Christians on the Lord's Day?
   (a)_____offering the holy sacrifice of the Mass.
   (b)_____dancing happily.
   (c)_____going for a walk.
4. Whom should we love?
   (a)_____our parents.
   (b)_____our friends (*compañeros*).
   (c)_____all our fellow creatures (*semejantes*).
5. Which of these prayers is the better?
   (a)_____Ave Maria.
   (b)_____Lord's Prayer.
   (c)_____Creed.
6. Why did Jesus suffer?
   (a)_____for making himself known to man.
   (b)_____because he loved us.
   (c)_____to forgive our sins.

Draw a line connecting those which go together.

(a) We first received the life of Jesus Christ in the . . .	Communion
(b) The gathering together of the children of God is the . . .	Confession
(c) We received Jesus Christ in the . . .	Temple
(d) Sins are forgiven if we repent in the . . .	Church
(e) The church meets in the . . .	Baptism

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerio de Educación Nacional, División de Educación Elemental. *Guía para el Maestro, Educación Primaria, Primer Grado.* Bogotá: The Ministry, 1967. pp. 246–47. (Mimeograph)

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